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Educational News and Editorial Comment

SIR MICHAEL SADLER ON SECONDARY EDUCATION

During the last week in March Sir Michael Sadler, one of Great Britain's leading educators, delivered a series of lectures at Teachers College, Columbia University. His theme was secondary education. Among other significant statements, he made one which is especially impressive because it calls attention to the fact that everywhere in the world there is a growing demand for the admission of all classes to the privileges of higher education.

He said:

At this juncture in the readjustment of social opportunity to the new claims of knowledge, business, and aspiration, our chief purpose should be to make a good education effectively open to everybody. Therefore, we should welcome every kind of experiment, find place for every kind of study, test every hypothesis, grapple with every difficulty in a search for those kinds of education which, at one and the same time, awake enjoyment and demand discipline of body and mind alike. This I believe to be a time of radical venturesomeness in education, for trying all things, for being guided by the instincts of the community, for offering courses to which young people are drawn not by their easiness but by reason of their inherent interest and of the enjoyment which they give to those who strenuously endeavor to excel. In other words, at this juncture, I for one would lay stress not on the selective function of secondary education but on its assimilative power. In every nation the community viewed as a whole is instinctively seeking a new basis of social equality, an equality of

social opportunity, not in the belief that society is to be leveled, but, on the contrary, in the belief that on the basis of a new initial equality just distinction of individual excellence may be discovered, recognized, and rewarded. When this phase has passed, and it will come much more quickly in some countries than in others, it will be found possible to build upon the new platform of social equality new contrivances for the selection of those who are fittest for this or that function in the modern state. The dissolution of old class barriers, the scouring-away of ancient obstacles to individual opportunity, has been the capital characteristic, though not the only characteristic, of the great educational movement which has slowly gained strength in all countries of the world during the last 150 years. Its course is not yet finished. It is now biting its way into the granite breakwaters of tradition. It is a great tidal movement of the human spirit which has not yet reached its ebb.

THE STUDY OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PROBLEMS IN NEW YORK STATE

In 1927 the New York Associated Academic Principals initiated a movement to secure for the high schools of the state a clearer definition of their functions and better standards for the evaluation of classroom work. The State Department of Education was asked to co-operate in the effort and has given sympathetic encouragement and assistance. Warren W. Coxe, director of the Educational Research Division of the State Department of Education, has been responsible for a series of studies carried on under the general supervision of a committee of the New York Associated Academic Principals.

Among the topics which have been studied are the following: (1) changes or trends in secondary-school population which might be discovered from a study of available statistics in the State Department of Education; (2) pupils' interests as manifested in likes or dislikes for school subjects and for other activities; (3) vocational outlook of high-school pupils, both graduates and non-graduates, involving both choices and actual careers subsequent to leaving school; and (4) general intelligence of high-school pupils with reference to vocational outlook, choice of electives, scholarship in required subjects, and social and personal needs.

Three questionnaires were prepared and sent out: one to pupils in high schools; one to former pupils, both graduates and non-graduates; and one to teachers and administrative officers. A large number of answers have been received, and they are now being

tabulated. A preliminary report has been prepared, which includes summaries of the answers given by pupils to two questions. These summaries are as follows:

High-school changes suggested by pupils. Large numbers of the pupils either did not answer this question or stated that no changes are necessary. Among those who did make suggestions, we find a general complaint that there is too much home work. This does not seem to mean that pupils want the work made easier but rather that they would prefer a longer school session so that studying at home would not be necessary. Several expressed a desire for greater flexibility with regard to the high-school offerings—pupils wish to have greater opportunity for choosing subjects, to have greater stress on the interests of individual pupils, and to have more emphasis on the practical phases of each subject. The students also appear to be very critical of the school organization, indicating a number of matters which they think are ineffectively organized. In some cases the pupils wish to have better-trained teachers, presumably teachers in whom they have more confidence.

On the whole, these suggestions indicate a desire for more vital work in the high-school offerings. There was little or no expression of desire for easier work.

Why do pupils leave high school? Pupils were asked to state the reasons which in their observation cause pupils to withdraw from high school before graduation. Probably there is no individual having more intimate knowledge of this problem than the high-school pupil himself. From other replies it is obvious that he is generally very keen in his analysis. It would seem justifiable, therefore, to give considerable weight to his analysis of this problem. The replies were divided into a great number of categories. Combining similar replies, we find that the most frequently mentioned reason, approximately 35 per cent, is discouragement. Sometimes pupils were said to be discouraged because they could not study the subjects in which they were interested; sometimes because they failed and began to think there was no use in continuing; and sometimes because teachers themselves advised leaving. Another fairly large number were said to leave because they lacked ability to do high-school work or lacked sufficient ambition. This group overlaps, to a certain extent, the first one mentioned, for we are probably safe in saying that discouragement results from inability very frequently. If we combine these two groups, we find that about 50 per cent of the pupils leave because the work is discouraging, frequently too hard for their ability.

A large number leave because of financial difficulties. This is estimated at 25 per cent. These financial difficulties may be serious or may be minor. It may be that the parents require their financial assistance; it may be that they cannot dress well enough to feel comfortable with other high-school boys and girls. The financial element enters, however, into the decision to leave. A further reason given is that work seems more attractive to boys and girls than school. The reason for this may be, in part, that school has tended to discourage them. It may be that the desire to earn money becomes very strong. About 8

per cent are said to leave for this reason. One other reason for leaving is stated as home conditions other than financial. They probably represent an unsympathetic attitude on the part of the parents. About 5 per cent leave for this reason.

HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS AND GRADUATES

B. F. Buck, assistant superintendent of the public schools of Chicago, recently collected information with regard to the expectations of the members of the Senior classes in the Chicago high schools as to their future occupations and further attendance on educational institutions. The questionnaire which he used is as follows:

TO THE STUDENT:

Please put a check before the name of the occupation or profession for which you are preparing or which you plan to enter in the near future or, if going to college, before the course you wish to take.

College:	Public service:	Miscellaneous—Continued
To prepare for profession of:	Army	Artist
Architect	Child-welfare work	Athletic coach
Author	Diplomatic service	Aviation
Certified public accountant	Navy	Banker
Dentist	Social work	Broker
Engineer:	Business:	Designer
Chemical	Accountant	Dietitian
Civil	Administrator	Draftsman
Electrical	Public stenographer	Dramatic work
Mechanical	Secretary	Educational director of department store
Mining	Statistician	Employment manager
Survey	Stenographer	Forester
Journalist:	Translator	Horticulture
Reporter	Trades:	Interior decorating
Editorial	Printer:	Nurse
Critic	Compositor	Photographer
Lawyer	Bookbinder	Research worker
Librarian	Pressman	Stage
Ministry	Photo-engraver	Vocational adviser
Musician	Stereotyper	Y.M.C.A. secretary
Pharmacist	Electrotypist	Y.W.C.A. secretary
Physician	Lithographer	
Scientist	Miscellaneous:	
Teacher	Advertising	
	Agriculture	

A total of 8,523 pupils answered the questionnaire. Two hundred and eight pupils had not decided what they are going to do. One hundred and eleven pupils plan to enter public service in the army, navy, child-welfare work, or social work. Two thousand four hundred and forty-five pupils plan to enter the business world as accountants, stenographers, secretaries, statisticians, or translators. One hundred and ninety pupils plan to enter the printing trades.

TABLE I

PROFESSIONS FOR WHICH 3,909 PUPILS EXPECT TO PREPARE IN COLLEGE OR COURSES WHICH THEY EXPECT TO PURSUE

Course or Profession	Number of Pupils	Course or Profession	Number of Pupils
Architect.....	213	Librarian.....	149
Author.....	36	Lawyer.....	409
Certified public accountant.....	236	Ministry.....	17
Dentist.....	115	Musician.....	248
Engineer:		Pharmacist.....	147
Aeronautical.....	10	Physician.....	268
Chemical.....	159	Scientist.....	75
Civil.....	185	Teacher.....	705
Electrical.....	266	Journalist.....	148
Fire-protection.....	6	Reporter.....	60
Gas.....	1	Editorial work.....	16
Industrial.....	1	Critic.....	19
Mechanical.....	148	Liberal-arts course.....	12
Mining.....	14	General course.....	1
Radio.....	1	Commerce and administration.....	8
Structural.....	2	Miscellaneous courses.....	122
Survey.....	8		
Type not specified.....	104	Total.....	3,909

One thousand six hundred and sixty pupils plan to enter miscellaneous occupations, among which are advertising, agriculture, architectural work, artist, athletic coach, aviation, banker, broker, designer, dietitian, draftsman, dramatic work, forester, horticulture, interior decorator, nurse, photographer, and vocational adviser. Three thousand nine hundred and nine pupils plan to go to college. Table I shows the professions for which these 3,909 pupils expect to prepare or the courses which they expect to pursue.

General information regarding high-school graduates is reported in Bulletin No. 35, 1929, of the United States Office of Education entitled *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1927-1928*:

In 1928 the public high schools graduated 474,736 pupils, 210,916 boys and 263,820 girls. The regular high schools graduated 324,489, and the reorganized high schools, 150,247.

Of 424,437 graduates in 1927, 129,630, or 30.5 per cent, went to college in 1928, and 52,248, or 12.3 per cent, went to some other institution. Of the boys graduated in 1927, 35 per cent went to college, and of the girls, 27 per cent. Of the boys graduated, 8.1 per cent went to some other institution after graduation, and 15.7 per cent of the girls went to some other institution.

In regular high schools, 30.2 per cent went to college and 13.3 per cent to some other institution after graduation. In reorganized schools, 31.2 per cent went to college and 10.3 per cent to some other institution after graduation.

In communities having a population of fewer than 2,500, 29 per cent of the 1927 graduates went to college in 1928 and 15.8 per cent went to some other institution. The rates for regular high schools and for reorganized schools are much the same, both for college attendance and for attendance in some other institution.

In every group a higher percentage of boys than of girls went to college and a higher percentage of girls than of boys went to some other institution. The other institutions include normal schools and commercial schools, and these enrol considerably more girls than boys.

In the regular high schools, 144,599 boys out of 172,188 in the fourth year graduated, or 84 per cent of the total number of boys in the Senior class. Among the girls, 179,890 graduated out of 202,119, or 89 per cent of the girls in the Senior class. In the reorganized high schools, 66,317 boys out of 78,043 in the Senior class, or 85 per cent of the total, graduated. Among the girls, 83,930, or 89 per cent of the 94,248 in the Senior class, graduated.

In the regular high schools, 46 per cent of the Seniors are boys, and in the reorganized high schools, 45.3 per cent are boys. In the regular schools, 44.6 per cent of the graduating class are boys, and in the reorganized schools, 44.1 per cent are boys. In regular schools the number of boys graduating is 48.3 per cent of the number of boys in the Sophomore year, while the number of girls graduating is 55.3 per cent of the number of girls in the second regular high-school year. In reorganized schools the number of boys graduating is 49.3 per cent of the number of boys in the Sophomore year, while the number of girls graduating is 57.1 per cent of the number of girls in the second regular high-school year. It is not possible to show the rate of graduation for the Freshmen by type of school because, where reorganization is not complete, the first-year pupils are quite generally enrolled in junior high schools, while another portion of the first-year pupils and all other high-school pupils are enrolled in regular high schools. In Washington, D.C., for example, ten junior high schools report 1,803 pupils in the ninth grade, while seven regular high schools report 3,597 pupils in the ninth grade, and 1,895 graduates for 1928.

ENROLMENT IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS
OF NEW YORK CITY

The following statement, which was published in the *New York Sun*, gives statistics for the schools of New York City.

French still leads in the foreign-language enrolment of the senior high schools. The number of students studying French is 52,585 out of a total foreign-language enrolment of 124,805.

The enrolments in the other languages as given in the official report follow: German, 11,443; Greek, 183; Italian, 2,298; Latin, 27,164; and Spanish, 31,132.

Italian is a newcomer in the high-school curriculum, and, while its enrolment is still small, it has been growing steadily for the last few years.

The total enrolment for modern languages is 97,458, and for ancient languages, 27,347. The enrolment by terms indicates that the great majority of all the students studying languages are in the first two years of the high-school course. The total enrolment by terms is: first, 30,158; second, 26,569; third, 26,495; fourth, 21,079; fifth, 10,302; sixth, 8,483; seventh, 1,157; eighth, 562.

A PLAN FOR ENLARGING THE PROGRAM OF INSTRUCTION
IN SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS

Harold W. Baker has contributed to a recent issue of the *Educational Research Bulletin* of the Ohio State University an article entitled "The Tutorial Plan for Ohio Schools." The "tutorial plan" is a combination of correspondence instruction and infrequent meetings of the teacher with his pupils. Some extracts from the article are as follows:

By this plan a class is organized by the State Department of Education under the best teacher of the desired subject obtainable in the territory. For the first year of teaching any subject under this plan, it has been deemed wise to require that the teacher have at least one class in the same subject in his own school at the same time in order that he may endeavor to keep the groups parallel. It would, indeed, be desirable if the two groups could be equated by ability or achievement.

On the first Saturday of the semester, the tutorial group meets with the selected teacher in some announced central place. This meeting-place is carefully selected by the local administration in co-operation with the representative of the State Department. The location must be central for the district served and should be enough of a business center that the pupils will have no difficulty in arranging for transportation. The class will not be larger than the standards set by the North Central Association designate and not smaller than fifteen in any but the most exceptional case.

The group as a whole decides upon arrangements for further contacts, and

the teacher in charge informs the pupils how, when, and where he may be reached. For example, one county selected 9 to 11 A.M., Saturday, in the county courthouse, convenient to the office and telephone service of the county superintendent. This is considered a definite appointment when the pupils may gather as a class if they choose or if the teacher desires to require it. . . .

Before arranging for the tutorial class, the state must be assured of co-operation by the county and central-point superintendents as well as by enough administrators in smaller localities to set up a class of at least fifteen, preferably twenty-five to thirty, pupils to parallel the control group. The pupils must be recommended by the local administration as capable of carrying on work with a high degree of performance. The subject so carried may be intended to complete a regular program for graduation, or it may be a fifth subject if the local administration recommends the pupil for an extra subject in addition to the work he is already taking.

The class should meet as a group as often as is necessary for the teacher to check progress. This might need to be once a week for some classes and perhaps twice a semester for others. It is expected that median practice will be about one meeting a month, with provision for pupil-teacher contacts at any time needed. The tuition charges, prorated per enrolled pupil, will be paid from the board of pupil residence to the board employing the teacher. Enrolment will be on a semester basis, with the expectation of maintaining the class as a whole throughout a year. The credit will be given by the school in which the teacher is employed and transferred to the school in which the pupil is enrolled unless the State Department deems some other arrangement equitable.

The purpose of the tutorial plan as outlined is not merely economy of operation; it attempts to meet as many as possible of the real needs of Ohio pupils in secondary schools. It aims to include not only college-entrance subjects but vocational instruction, as far as it may be successfully given, as well. Construction of additional courses is already in progress, and other offerings, as far as feasible, are planned for next year. For the present, at least, it is assumed that the maturity of pupils makes it inadvisable to operate below eleventh-grade level.

EQUIPMENT OF A TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL

The following statement was published in the *New York Sun*.

Pupils who attend the new Brooklyn Technical High School when the proposed \$5,500,000 structure is completed will find there equipment for instruction in the rudiments of radio, aviation, navigation, and other technical vocations as well as in the building trades and industrial processes. Formal plans for the building, adopted by the Board of Superintendents, reveal this structure will be the most complete of its kind in the city. The school will be built at De Kalb Avenue and Fort Greene Place, Brooklyn. It will accommodate 5,500 pupils.

The plans approved are the result of months of conference between Albert L. Colston, principal of the school, and Walter C. Martin, superintendent of school

buildings, as well as other officials of the school system. The plans call for the following equipment:

An auditorium seating 3,000.

A gymnasium of 7,740 square feet.

A natatorium and plunge.

A rifle range.

A corrective-training room.

A physical-examination room and a medical room.

Nine industrial-process recitation rooms.

A music room.

Four band-practice rooms.

Two physics laboratories and a physics preparation room, a science lecture room, three chemistry recitation rooms, three chemical laboratories, and two chemistry preparation rooms.

A laboratory to test the strength of materials.

A radio studio.

A biology laboratory.

Fifteen mechanical-drawing rooms, an architectural-drawing room, and a blueprint room.

A photo laboratory and desk room.

Five freehand-drawing rooms.

A plastering shop.

A tile-setting shop.

A printer's composing room, a pressroom, and a linotype room.

A building-construction shop, a structural shop, a lumber and mill room, a paint finishing room, eight pattern shops, an advanced pattern shop, four joinery shops, seven elementary machine shops, two advanced machine shops, a foundry, brass and demonstrating room, three forge shops, three sheet-metal shops, and three metal-shop lecture rooms.

An elementary electrical laboratory and preparation room, an advanced electrical shop, and an advanced electrical laboratory.

An auto-mechanics and special-machine shop, an automotive electrical shop, and an automobile shop.

An aviation shop and "dope" room.

A shop for the heat treatment of metals.

A modeling room, a color and figure room, and a freehand shop.

A navigation room.

A surveying room.

An exhibition room.

Provision for a unit of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps.

A play roof.

In addition, there will be the usual school equipment of libraries, study halls, cafeterias for pupils and teachers, sixty-four regular classrooms, and a number of special lecture rooms.

THE CAREER OF THE TEACHER

The Ohio State University recently published a pamphlet entitled *Do You Want To Teach?* The pamphlet was prepared by Earl W. Anderson, head of the Appointments Division of the Bureau of Educational Research, and J. L. Morrill, junior dean of the College of Education. It is addressed to students in the College of Education and contains a series of statements intended to stimulate them to a careful consideration of their own attitudes and qualifications before they enter the profession of teaching.

The pamphlet supplies the following information in answer to the important question "Does teaching pay financially?"

How does teaching compare with other occupations and professions? At the outset, these things may be said: First, teaching salaries, in general, are limited. No teacher will ever become rich on his or her salary in the way that some lawyers, dentists, doctors, or men and women in business and commercial lines become wealthy. On the other hand, the average beginning teacher will receive a better salary than the average college graduate in many other lines can earn at the outset. In other words, teaching pays better in the beginning than most lines of work, but advances in pay are small and slow, extending over a long period of years, and they are definitely limited at the top, whereas the income of many business and professional people is practically unlimited. On the other hand, it is very doubtful whether the average doctor, lawyer, or professional or business worker makes any more in the long run than the average teacher; and the teacher is generally more certain of his income. Costs of establishing one's self in the chosen occupation are higher in most lines than in teaching. Thus, the doctor must purchase his instruments, and the lawyer his books. Rent and overhead in many professions make a considerable outlay necessary. Teaching requires no such expenditures. Here are some facts about teaching salaries in Ohio at present.

The beginning woman high-school teacher ordinarily starts at from \$1,000 to \$1,400. Last year the median in Ohio was \$1,265. The beginning man teacher starts at from \$1,100 to \$1,500 for the academic fields (sciences, history, languages, etc.), and from \$1,300 to \$1,800 in industrial arts and athletics coaching. Last year the median in Ohio was \$1,426.

The maximum salary for experienced teachers in many small communities is \$1,500 to \$1,800 for women and from \$1,700 to \$2,200 for men—with the prevailing practice of raising the teacher's pay annually from between \$50 and \$150 until the maximum is reached. In the better village schools and the larger cities the maximum is higher. In Columbus, for example, the present maximum is \$2,625, in Cleveland \$3,600, and in Cincinnati \$3,500.

Principals and superintendents receive as little as \$1,600 in some of the small communities and as much as \$15,000 in the two largest cities of the state.

There are several such positions paying \$6,000 to \$10,000. The competition for such jobs is very keen, of course. A Master's degree, and sometimes the Doctor of Philosophy degree, is generally required. Most principals and superintendents are men, though a few of them are women.

THE THEORY OF ATHLETICS

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching has published a second bulletin on athletics. It is entitled *The Literature of American School and College Athletics*. It was compiled by W. Carson Ryan, professor of education at Swarthmore College.

The chief outcome of Professor Ryan's compilation is indicated in the following paragraphs quoted from the Foreword by Henry S. Pritchett, president of the Carnegie Foundation.

Professor Ryan has here set forth fully the convictions of the various commentators upon the moral and social qualities—such as honesty, the ability to co-operate, initiative, courage—that are claimed for college athletics. Of the treatises which he lists dealing with this subject, the great majority claim all of these benefits for those who participate in athletics. Only a few of the more recent writers appear to have doubts, and very few deny, that these benefits are secured this way. So widely have these advantages been acclaimed that it has come to be taken for granted by many that they provide a wholesome element in the life of present-day society. Turning, however, again to the other side of the question and examining the facts as far as they can be ascertained, it is clear that the case for these much-lauded advantages as developed by college athletics is scarcely proved. At most, in the judgment of the authors of Bulletin Number Twenty-three, they are probable only under the most favorable circumstances. Moreover, the examination of the facts of college athletics as set forth in this bulletin leads to this disquieting question: If desirable social and manly qualities may be developed by participation in college sport, what of those undesirable qualities that are constantly stimulated through recruiting, subsidizing, and the many other dishonest practices to which commercialism and the unreasonable desire for victory may give rise?

These are only two of the claims concerning which so much has been written and spoken with respect to college athletics and with which the existing facts of the athletic situation in our colleges seem to be at variance. It is clear that many of the advantages that are claimed for present-day sport represent the desires and hopes of its proponents rather than demonstrated results. To those who have at heart the cause of American higher education and of American sport, only one course is possible. For the sake of every youth whom school and college sport touches, the desired moral and social values that it can yield must be made realities. Only in this way can the development of organized athletics in American colleges be justified.

A SINGLE-SALARY SCHEDULE

The city of Milwaukee, Wisconsin, is discussing the virtues and defects of a single-salary schedule for teachers. The elementary-school teachers favor such a schedule, while the high-school teachers are opposed to it. The following editorial was published in a recent issue of the official bulletin of the Milwaukee High School Teachers' Association.

A recent editorial in a Milwaukee daily justly states in effect that the proposed revision of teachers' salaries now before the school board of Milwaukee involves matters of contentment, morale, efficiency of the teaching force, and the ability of the city to pay more money. When, in conclusion, the editor proclaims his belief in the soundness of the principle of equality of pay "judged by experience and preparation," he ignores the whole question of reward of merit, of teacher responsibility in the various departments of educational work, of personal effort on the job, of ability to assume and carry responsibilities, of length of the school day, of extra-curriculum responsibility, of individual differences, of professional attitudes, of the laws regulating supply and demand, and of other factors which admittedly enter into the question of determination of the worthiness of the laborer and his hire. The fundamental error in the editorial reasoning is in assuming that years of tenure and acquired college credits give assurance of teaching power and professional interest.

Any impartial consideration of the question of sound finance in salary schedules must recognize the fact that teachers are human beings and that, as such, they vary in intelligence, ability, efficiency, initiative, and temperament, and that the teacher load does vary. Moreover, the single-salary schedule proposed has no widespread existence in fact but is a theory not accepted as sound educationally or in the field of economics.

Operation of the laws of supply and demand, market conditions, and teachers themselves the country over have already set up the wage standards which, be they right and just or not, classify our educational system into primary, elementary, secondary, and advanced schools. Now comes the junior high school as a further differentiation, with its tryout courses, its exploratory activities, and departmentalization.

The theory of the single-salary schedule is that it is easy to operate. It should be because promotions would be automatic, entirely unrelated to any question of difference in worthiness. Where there is no limit to the amount of money that may be paid out, teachers who are adequately paid for their efforts could not seriously object to other teachers receiving equal pay for greatly inferior service. This grants another merit of the system that it eliminates class consciousness and promotes satisfaction. That it would attract superior ability to the elementary schools should be a reasonable hope. Increase in wages is frequently an inducement. The assumption that placing emphasis upon higher standards of

attainment in degrees would produce more efficient teaching is not above suspicion. That some teachers would make the attainment of degrees and the consequent increase in salary their chief aim in life is fully as imaginable as the alleged more efficient teaching. The inducement to study would be a monetary inducement. It would seem that very mechanical, very unsympathetic, very ordinary teachers might devote their lives to study rather than teaching and that the ultimate effect with many teachers would be to lower teaching standards rather than to raise them.

We incline to the belief that the question of administration of our schools is larger than the adoption of the proposed single-salary schedule. It is a question of educational honesty, of morale, of just deserts, of economic laws, of common sense, and of finance. It is a problem which calls for further study and inquiry of a very searching nature before the city should launch itself upon a program which will reduce the question of salary to a mere race of longevity and endurance, years on the job and endurance in acquirement of college credits. As stars vary in glory, so do teachers vary in those qualities which make for most efficient service in the profession. That attendance in college classes plus accumulated years in service spells the whole story has not been admitted by candid, thoughtful, experienced educators. Yet this is the proposal of the Milwaukee single-salary advocates.

The fundamental obligation of the school board is to the school children. It is for the board to determine what distribution of available funds will secure the best possible teachers in every division of the school system. Common sense and financial limitations will, we think, determine the outcome. Teachers are incidental to the process, and the proper solution of the wage problem must be determined with a view to the promotion of education in accordance with human experience and human limitations.

THE JUNIOR SCHOOLS OF SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS

R. L. LYMAN
University of Chicago

The observations here reported were undertaken to find answers to certain major questions concerning the junior high schools in a city which is recognized as educationally progressive. The inquiries center around five key words: *Integration*: How are pupil activities correlated and systematized? *Normalization*: How are pupil experiences related to daily life? *Individualization*: How is instruction adjusted to varying pupil capacities? *Exploration*: How are children led to appraise their own vocational and avocational capacities? *Socialization*: In a program of individualized instruction, how are the values of group co-operation developed and sustained? These functions of the junior high school are not by any means sharply distinct; nor is any one of them carried on apart from the others. Moreover, the five functions do not exhaust the characteristics of true junior high schools. However, any school concerning which favorable judgments are justified in these five respects has advanced far beyond the practices of the more conservative elementary schools of the present day.

INTEGRATION

The eight junior schools¹ for white pupils in San Antonio were inaugurated under conditions peculiarly favorable for integration as defined in the preceding paragraph. In 1923 the city, generously providing \$2,000,000 for new buildings, reorganized its entire school system on the 5-3-3 basis. Throughout the community the pupils in Grades VI, VII, and VIII were at one time transferred to the new buildings, which were especially designed for intermediate schools with enrolments of from 500 to 750 pupils and situated in spaces equivalent to large city blocks. This simultaneous transfer of all the junior population, preceded by a year of intensive study of junior high school theory and practice by the staff of supervisors and teach-

¹ The intermediate schools in San Antonio are called "junior schools."

ers, facilitated the blocking-out of a program for the entire city. The program was made sufficiently uniform to provide adequately a common integrating education and to allow the transfer of pupils and at the same time was made sufficiently elastic to allow suitable variations in the practices of individual schools. For example, the Sidney Lanier Junior School, in which 95 per cent of the pupils are Mexican, was permitted to place more emphasis on practical arts than was deemed appropriate in the other schools.

Attention concentrated on a few subjects.—Apparently the school leadership of San Antonio of 1923 and succeeding years has set itself squarely against the "skirmishes" in unrelated activities which too frequently characterize the school life of adolescents. Junior high schools often attempt to retain all the traditional subjects, each of which has been largely expanded, and, under the laudable desire of enriching the curriculum, add a multitude of new subjects. The result is an overcrowded curriculum; the children are hurried daily through a bewildering maze of activities. The lengthened school day often facilitates the multiplication of fragmentary pretenses at learning, the pupils in some schools being subjected to ten or more separate undertakings a day.

Concentration of the curriculum.—In many ways, of which only three can be mentioned here, San Antonio has largely succeeded in compacting the curriculum. From the outset, the program has concentrated on five major lines—social studies, English, mathematics, health education, and related arts—a special "director of instruction" in charge of each. These subjects are given, with certain minor exceptions, sixty-minute time allotments five days a week. Foreign languages, music, art, social clubs, general science, business training, manual training, and domestic science are all included in sensible proportions in every school, generally as electives. In some of these subjects all the pupils are enrolled, but the "related arts" are distinctly considered, as they should be, secondary subjects, for educational tryout and for special attention to highly individual needs or gifts. They are not the core of the curriculum. The fact that they are designated "related arts" and, all told, are allotted about one-fifth of the curriculum emphasis, indicates their subordination. The daily occupations of each pupil are, then, concentrated on not more

than five, or at the most six, lines of endeavor. The curriculum of constants and electives, as shown in Table I, confirms this statement. In the sixth grade, of the thirty hours of work, all constants,

TABLE I
PROGRAM OF STUDIES

	Number of Periods a Week		Number of Periods a Week
Sixth grade:		Seventh grade: Second semes-	
First semester:		ter: Required—Continued	
Required (30 hours):		Physical education.....	5
English.....	5-3	Social studies.....	5
Mathematics.....	5	Occupations.....	3
Social studies.....	5	Electives (6 hours):	
Physical education.....	5	Manual arts.....	5
Related arts:		Domestic science.....	5
General science.....	3	Commercial.....	5
Manual training.....	2	Foreign language.....	5
Domestic science.....	2	Music.....	1
Music.....	1	Art.....	1
Art.....	1	Eighth grade:	
Second semester:		First semester:	
Required (30 hours):		Required (15 hours):	
English.....	5-3	English.....	5
Mathematics.....	5	Physical education.....	5
Social studies.....	5	Social studies.....	5
Physical education.....	5	Electives (15 hours):	
Related arts:		Mathematics.....	5
General science.....	3	Foreign language:	
Manual training.....	2	Latin.....	5
Domestic science.....	2	Spanish.....	5
Music.....	1	French.....	5
Art.....	1	General science.....	5
Seventh grade:		Applied art.....	5
First semester:		Manual training.....	5-10
Required (24 hours):		Domestic science.....	5-10
English.....	5-2	Commercial.....	5
Mathematics.....	4	Second semester:	
Physical education.....	5	Required (15 hours):	
Social studies.....	5	English.....	5
Occupations.....	3	Physical education.....	5
Electives (6 hours):		Social studies.....	5
Manual arts.....	5	Electives (15 hours):	
Domestic science.....	5	Mathematics.....	5
Commercial.....	5	Foreign language:	
Foreign language.....	5	Latin.....	5
Music.....	1	Spanish.....	5
Art.....	1	French.....	5
Second semester:		General science.....	5
Required (24 hours):		Applied art.....	5
English.....	5-2	Manual training.....	5-10
Mathematics.....	4	Domestic science.....	5-10
		Commercial.....	5

twenty-three are in the integrating subjects. In the seventh grade twenty-four hours of constants deal with the basal subjects and six hours with electives. Electives occupy fifteen hours in the eighth grade, while fifteen hours are reserved for constants in English, social studies, and health education. Thus, while the electives gradually increase, the constants predominate.

Interrelation of learnings.—A second means of integration, manifested in a multitude of ways, consists of the correlations that exist between the various elements of each pupil's daily program. In some of the schools instruction in Spanish and English is correlated in both the language and the literature aspects. In several schools the art, music, domestic-science, and literature departments collaborate in the preparation and production of dramas. An assembly program may be developed by a home room, a class, or a club whose interests relate to the activities of some subject department. For example, the general plans for a "thrift assembly" were developed by a home room. Mathematics classes calculated the necessary percentages and constructed graphs; art classes designed the decorations and costumes; classes in the social studies developed the idea of citizenship through thrift; music classes and the school orchestra furnished the music; and English classes sponsored the expression.

The school paper furnishes another means of interrelating learnings and skills. The particular theme or motif of each issue of the paper is advertised in advance to the school through the home rooms, and the children are invited to contribute. All contributions are sent to the eighth-grade English classes for criticism and correction and then to the junior business training classes, where stencils are cut with proper regard for correct newspaper composition and spacing. Pupils in art classes submit illustrations and designs, which are transferred to stencils. All contributions are then mimeographed and assembled by pupils in the junior business training department. A good example is a special number of the *Raven*, issued by one of the junior schools, entitled "Civic Clubs of San Antonio." This number grew out of the work in a social-studies class. Articles were written by social-studies classes, corrected by English classes, illustrated by art classes, and typewritten, mimeographed, and assembled by junior business training classes.

Combination courses in the arts.—A third conspicuous manifestation of integration is seen in the combination courses correlating literature, art, and music throughout the seventh grade. The objective is to utilize pupil experiences in related curricular enterprises in order to develop the ability to respond properly to the emotional elements of the arts. The assumption is that enjoyment and appreciation of the aesthetic are dependent upon adequate emotional response and, moreover, that response to emotional elements can be awakened and developed. To this end, reproductions of famous pictures, phonograph records of classical music, and examples of excellent literature are put before the children with challenges to discover within themselves the appropriate feeling responses. Observation of classes engaged in such enterprises and examination of the selected and classified materials used indicate that careful precautions are taken to prevent pupils from reacting in meaningless petty formulas and that the intellectual comprehension of a literary selection as a condition of appreciation is by no means neglected. This combination of various subject matters, the embryo of a composite or general course in the arts, is a noteworthy educational innovation.

General courses in the social studies.—Integration at its best is found in the correlations of the social studies, including history, geography, civics, elementary economics, and sociology. The purpose is to lead pupils to interrelate their information, their skills, and their ideals in related fields and to employ them constructively in various patterns. The old idea of separate and distinct disciplines is abandoned, along with the antiquated belief that facts are acquired in one set of experiences, skills in another set, and attitudes in still another set. Related learnings go forward together.

To put this theory in practice with relation to the social studies, the school system set up ten objectives for the three-year course, each having from three to five subdivisions. The ten main objectives are as follows:

1. How our country came to be what it is.
2. How methods of business affect the life of our people.
3. How to recognize problems in community life.
4. How national success depends on individual intelligence and character.
5. How our civilization depends on fundamental industries.

6. How conservation of resources is essential to public welfare.
7. How nations have come to be dependent on one another.
8. How antagonisms arise between nations.
9. How inventions and discoveries improve life-conditions.
10. How American ideals have affected and may affect history and civilization.

Obviously, no traditional textbook outlines such a program. Hence, mimeographed sheets of challenges involving many problems or projects and including materials in all the social fields have been set up as the course of study. Thus, the pupils are guided into the subject matter of overlapping fields but always with some definite objective in view.

NORMALIZATION

The term "normalization" suggests the much-needed and too often conspicuously absent intimacy of association between school activities and life outside of school. Familiar theories in junior high school literature are that pupils should be taught to perform better the activities they will perform anyway and that immediate values are at least as important as deferred values. The junior schools of San Antonio appear to have put these theories into practice.

Relation of subject matter to activities.—The first tendency toward normalization is the deliberate organization of the different school subjects on the basis of pupil activities rather than on the basis of subject matter. Textbooks, largely inclined to exalt subject matter, are entirely relegated to the library shelves for reference purposes, and the challenges referred to constitute the organization of each course. These challenges, which take the place of teaching devices commonly known as "job sheets," arouse the children's imagination and furnish the urge for the investigation of problems, projects, and questions. Two samples of challenges with supporting projects are here presented. The first is a very brief part of the sixth-grade work on the social-science objective, or unit, "How our civilization depends on fundamental industries."

HOW HAS MAN IMPROVED THE METHODS BY WHICH HE SHELTERS HIMSELF FROM THE ELEMENTS?

1. Was there ever a time when man lived in trees? In caves?
2. Who were the cliff dwellers, and where did they live?
3. What sort of houses were built by people during Bible times?

4. Why were the pyramids built?
5. Of what materials are dwellings built in Mexico? In China? In the United States?
6. Find reasons why such materials are used.
7. How are bricks made?
8. How is cement made?
9. Of what importance are they to modern buildings?
10. Where in the United States are the important centers of manufacture of these materials?
11. Where are the sources of lumber in the United States?
12. Have we an adequate supply?
 - a) What do we mean by conservation of our forests?
 - b) Where are our forest preserves?
 - c) Find out about the duties of a forest ranger.
 - d) How can we help in protecting our forests?

Obviously, this list of questions, only a fragment of the extended challenges that develop the complete unit, accompanied by references to be found in the classroom library or in the school library, constitutes a series of research activities. In fact, the pupils write their own textbooks. Under the better teachers, they refine their reports after class discussion and preserve the records of their own learnings.

So important is the feature of normalization, constituting as it does one of the distinctive contributions of the junior schools of San Antonio, that glimpses may be given in one other field. Directed pupil activities, with subject matter of immediate life-value, is the watchword in science. The following is a small part of an outline of ten mimeographed sheets on a unit in sixth-grade general science. It is presented to support the statement that the junior schools think of the curriculum primarily in terms of guided pupil activities.

BUTTERFLIES AND MOTHS: WHAT PART DO THEY
PLAY IN THE WORLD OF NATURE?

1. Do you know—
 - a) The difference between a butterfly and a moth?
 - b) That the wings of a butterfly are shingled like the roof of a house?
 - c) How long a moth and a butterfly live?
 - d) The difference between a caterpillar and a worm?
 - e) [Etc.]
2. Places to find materials on butterflies and moths. [A list of references in the library]

3. Things to make and do
 - a) Make a net
 - b) Mount butterflies
 - c) Find some moth eggs
 - d) Cage a caterpillar
 - e) Raise some silk worms
 - f) [Etc.]
4. Things to read about and write about
 - a) Captivity of silkworm
 - b) Pests that destroy caterpillars
 - c) The caterpillars, seven varieties common in San Antonio
 - d) [Etc.]
5. Research problems for the class
 - a) Name the life stages of a moth
 - b) What food does a grasshopper eat?
 - c) [Etc.]
6. Poems of appreciation about butterflies
 - a) "The Butterfly Ball" by William Roscoe
 - b) [Etc.]

Normalization through library experiences.—Closely associated with the challenges which come to the pupils from all their classrooms is another feature of the junior schools: their libraries, admirably staffed, thoroughly equipped, and constantly used. Conveniently located in the center of each building is a library seating from 65 to 110 pupils with a stock room twenty-one by thirty feet adjoining. On the open shelves are between three thousand and five thousand books classified under various school subjects. The magazine racks are generously stocked. Under the direction of a trained librarian for children, pupils spend from three to five class periods each week in the library and often voluntarily spend more time when busy with some engaging challenge. Of 500 pupils in one school, 285 used the library for "research" during one day. This number evidently was the maximum. When a teacher desires a set of textbooks for use in her room, the copies are taken to her and later returned by pupil officers. Books for study reading may be taken home but must be returned the following day; books for pleasure reading may be taken home and retained for a week. From one junior-school library, during a period of twenty days, 863 books were withdrawn for pleasure reading.

A well-planned series of library lessons is given to each sixth-grade English class by a trained librarian, who thereafter for three years keeps constantly in touch with the pupils' actual library procedures and problems. After the sixth grade, her guidance is largely individual. She is always in close co-operation with all the home-room and subject teachers. The librarian is thus primarily the central officer in charge of the program of directed study. In her keeping are most of the materials used by the pupils when they work on their many challenges. She, even more than the classroom teacher, is associated with the pupil during the productive stages of his independent work. She is the director of the study activities which develop his habits and skills in the use of books. Indeed, the junior schools of San Antonio have advanced so far in adequately directing pupils' work habits that the hope may be entertained that they will advance still farther. They might take the lead in a scientific analysis of study specifics. They might carry us several stages ahead of the gross items that enter into the handling of books, such as the use of indexes and card catalogues, into the field of the as yet undiscovered study specifics.

Health education.—A junior-school system which provides for every pupil one hour of health training each day for three years may be said to have gone far toward normalizing education. Through direct contacts with real things by hand and eye and ear comes the development of the mind. Physical health and growth are essentially linked with mental health and growth. To capitalize this idea, each junior school employs two full-time physical directors, a man and a woman, whose duties are threefold. They examine children for all the common physical defects and supervise remedial drills for sub-normal children; they organize and supervise all recreational physical activities, including group games, sports, and athletics; and they teach classes in personal, home, school, and community hygiene and personally guide pupils in functioning hygiene. In this aspect of school life, as in all other aspects, the absence of formalized procedure is very noticeable. The normalizing and individualizing functions are co-ordinated.

INDIVIDUALIZATION

Individualization as the primary function of the junior school has been the aim from the very beginning, as indicated by the fact that throughout San Antonio the pupils have always been permitted to attend the junior school of their choice. Naturally, however, the proximity of the school to their homes is usually the determining factor. As indicated, the freedom with which each school adjusts its practices within certain limits is a still further manifestation of the absence of regimentation and lock-step education.

No conspicuous machinery.—The familiar administrative device of ability grouping is the basis for securing groups of pupils homogeneous in ability. The schools of San Antonio, unlike many others, do not rely entirely on intelligence quotients for the classification of pupils. Achievement tests in various subjects are used in addition to intelligence tests. The findings from these tests are considered in connection with teachers' judgments, and from the average rankings temporary assignment of the children is made to superior, average, and slow sections. A few pupils are shifted from one section to another as experience proves they are improperly classified. Although this procedure represents the best current practice, two dangers exist. First, a pupil properly placed in slow sections in three subjects possibly ought to be in a superior section in a fourth subject. For example, the young man recently selected from many candidates to be trained as Thomas A. Edison's successor was at one time a pupil in San Antonio, and in the seventh grade he was decidedly superior in science but was slow in English. Again, danger exists that pupils of adolescent age will find themselves branded as "slow" or recognized as "superior." Either situation is eventually harmful. It is to be said that neither the ability groups nor the machinery employed in determining them are conspicuous in San Antonio. Neither pupils nor teachers appear to be conscious of the classifications. Furthermore, so far as a casual observer can discern, no particular use is made of the groupings. Certainly the printed courses of study in the form of challenges, or contracts, are not deliberately adjusted to groups of varying ability.

Individualization in the challenges.—Elaborate lists of projects grouped under challenges are the provisions in San Antonio for differentiated assignments. All pupils attack all the challenges, but, in discovering a solution of a problem, a slow pupil may consult only one textbook, while a superior pupil may consult several supplementary sources. It is conceivable that the slow pupil might be directed to undertake only the easier problems, while the bright pupil is guided into the more complicated researches. However, this practice does not seem to be followed, because the challenge sheets outline consecutive systematized projects, all of which the entire class is supposed to undertake. A possible modification, and, in the opinion of the writer, a desirable one, would be a reduction of the now elaborate problem sheets to a minimal list and the grouping of the omitted projects in the form of additional or supplementary projects. The challenges as outlined at present include a few which appear to be too difficult for less gifted children.

Attention to special gifts.—A special art class, composed of especially gifted children discovered in art classes, meets each Saturday. The children are given instruction by a well-known local artist. Through study of different types of literature, pupils discover aptitudes for reproducing specific types. An opportunity is given for each child to create any of the types, and the creations are collected, mimeographed, and bound in book form. The library in each school has a shelf for original and creative work done by the pupils. Of this order is the attractive booklet *Little Journeys in Cultural San Antonio*. In the art metal work, the designing and making of articles, such as decorative metal tables with tile tops, floor lamps, window boxes, porch lamps, and curtain poles, disclose skill and adaptability in some boys, which, in some instances, have had vocational significance. Assemblies are often held at which children gifted in any line of music, dancing, or other form of expression are given an opportunity to give publicity to their talents. Such talents are usually first discovered in the home rooms or clubs. Athletic contests, arranged in Classes A, B, and C, according to age, grade, height, and weight, offer opportunities for both boys and girls to compete with others in comparable classes. A track meet, golf tournament, swimming meet, and tennis tournament, in addition to the regular com-

petitive schedule of games in football, basket-ball, volley ball, and baseball, offer opportunities for children to discover and develop any special athletic abilities they may possess. For example, a boy with one leg amputated above the knee won the "chinning the bar" event in his class, in competition with boys from every school in the city.

EXPLORATION AND GUIDANCE

Educational rather than vocational guidance.—In general, the junior schools of San Antonio lay minor stress on vocational training as such. The exceptions observed are two in number. First, the junior business training of the seventh and eighth grades, consisting largely of typewriting, business operations, handwriting, and business spelling, while it serves to guide pupils into or out of commercial operations and furnishes tryouts for the specialization of the senior schools, is, in practice, designed to equip pupils with knowledge and skills needed by junior business employees. At least, the junior business training furnishes the foundation for "learning on the job" when the children enter employment directly from the junior school. A second exception to the general emphasis on educational guidance as contrasted with vocational exploration is the shopwork in the Sidney Lanier Junior School, which is a combination senior and junior school. This school, the pupils in which are almost entirely Mexican, has elaborate thoroughly equipped shops in six lines of manual operations. To be sure, the shops are intended mainly for the Smith-Hughes training of ninth-, tenth-, and eleventh-grade pupils, but the inevitable and highly desirable result is that the junior boys using the shops gain trade-training experience not available in the other seven junior schools. As indicated, the two instances cited appear to be the exceptions that test the general rule: the junior schools of San Antonio lay emphasis on educational guidance as contrasted with vocational guidance, and they regard trade training as such as a function of the senior schools.

The "related arts."—In seven of the eight schools the work in art, music, and manual or domestic arts, required of all pupils in the sixth grade, is intended to serve the finding and broadening function and is largely for exploratory purposes. In the sixth grade the pupils try out a number of fields. In the seventh grade also the exploratory

purposes predominate, although specialization begins. In the eighth grade, the elective courses in the related arts, each five hours a week, attempt to establish concrete techniques, a comprehension of fundamental matters, and initiative in approaching and solving problems. Such a groundwork is considered preliminary to the continued study in the senior school, where the emphasis may be considered trade training.

The home room.—In accord with all intermediate schools, the junior schools of San Antonio regard the home room as the place of personal guidance. Each teacher is charged with the responsibility of knowing the home conditions and the social and intellectual standing of each of her home-room pupils. During the daily home-room period of thirty minutes such questions as the following are raised: Why should I remain in school? Shall I plan to go forward in the senior school, in the technical school, in the continuation school, or in the evening school? In what lines have I the most interest and ability? In addition to such intensely personal matters, courtesy and loyalty, team work and school spirit, and participation in all school duties are fostered. During the home-room period the weekly banking occurs, occupying but little time. Contests between home rooms in support of worthy community affairs provide worth-while activities. In short, the home room in San Antonio, as elsewhere, is the means of giving pupils the personal guidance often lacking in their homes.

Life-career classes.—Placed in the second year of the junior school is the course labeled "occupations." Here the pupils are made acquainted with the vocational opportunities, especially those in Texas, the qualifications necessary for success in the various occupations, the demands for workers, and the wages that may be expected. Under the careful guidance of trained vocational advisers, the seventh-grade children study themselves with reference to their skills, inclinations, and aptitudes. Considered also are the amount and kind of study, together with the cost in money and time, necessary for the professions. The objective is not to force premature choice of vocation but rather to initiate pupils into the serious and careful thinking that will eventually lead them into the right choices.

Exploratory features of the basal courses.—The junior schools of San Antonio are not limiting the function of exploration to the shop

courses. The glimpses into directed library reading and into the science and social-studies procedures are indicative of the highly commendable effort to make orientation of the pupil with life a vital feature of every course. A seventh-grade unit of correlated literature, art, and music attempts to awaken the children's awareness of their emotional reactions. In the class groups the children experience and react to subject matter presented to eye and ear. After the group experiences, the pupils search for and bring to class literature, pictures, and phonograph records. At first, their contributions are lacking in quality, reflecting their limited environments. As the discussions proceed, the sense of discrimination grows keener, and the poorer products are clearly recognized. Records are kept by each pupil; bibliographies are prepared; original verses are set to music; poems are illustrated by drawings; and music is composed. The correlated unit is a noteworthy, unique experiment, the objective of which is conscious exploration on the part of the children into their own capacities for appreciation.

SOCIALIZATION

Classroom procedures.—As with respect to the other four keynotes, socialization pervades all the classrooms instead of being shunted off as a peculiar function of clubs and home rooms and pupil-government agencies. Visits in many classrooms reveal classes of thirty-five pupils busily engaged in group enterprises, the pupils' movable chairs formed in circles. A music class was observed in serious operation under a pupil conductor, awaiting the sponsor, who was detained. The seventh-grade English classes meet together in the assembly hall to witness the production of a play by one class or to react to the music, art, and literature selections of special committees. Recitations take the form of group reactions to the meeting of challenges by various pupils, and, by agreement, the comments made by the pupils are not primarily negative. They are positive and constructive rather than fault-finding.

The avocational clubs.—No undue importance is placed on the avocational clubs, which are allotted one sixty-minute period a week. Too often such activities, given three or more periods a week, interfere with the more serious aspects of education. In San Antonio,

a child is, of course, limited to one club, as all the extra-curriculum activities have simultaneous meetings. In some schools a child may also be a member of a music club. The usual avocational interests are represented, the clubs ranging from Horseshoe Pitching to the World-Court Club. The most important is the Leaders' Club, usually sponsored by the school principal. Each club is established in response to manifested pupil interest and manifested fitness on the part of some teacher to act as sponsor. Large variation is observable in the lists of clubs operating in the different schools, but all the clubs have a common purpose, namely, the development of initiative, individuality, and resourcefulness necessary to good citizenship.

Pupil participation in control.—In nothing is the individuality of the eight junior schools more clearly manifested than in their varying procedures with reference to pupil participation in school government. The external forms range all the way from almost exclusive reliance on the home-room unit in one school to a highly organized "federal" system with delegated responsibilities in another school. In the former case such duties as supervising the passing in the halls are delegated in turn to one home room after another. In the latter case officers labeled with conspicuous insignia of a traffic squad preserve courteous conduct. In still a third school, no officers supervise the passing, and in no school is observable the "keep in line" procedure. A four-foot Chinese girl bringing a six-foot Mexican boy before a pupil tribunal was laughingly described by one principal. The successful running of the Sidney Lanier Junior School for an entire day without a teacher in the building was described with commendable pride by another principal. In general, elaborate machinery of elections and officers and courts is avoided, but very distinctly the old idea of discipline conceived as something apart from instruction and antecedent to it has entirely disappeared. Instead, in full practice are the junior high school theories that control and instruction go forward together, that junior citizens can conduct themselves properly under the social pressure of their own public opinion, that growth comes mainly through motivated activities, and that the primary function of the school is to manipulate environmental factors so that right conducts are pleasurable. The junior schools of San Antonio provide a very wholesome moral education through their sensible socialization program.

CONCLUSION

In keeping with the conviction of the junior schools of San Antonio that growth comes through successes rather than through shortcomings, this article has dealt almost exclusively with commendable features. Regrettable is the absence of men on the teaching staff except as physical directors of boys and as shop instructors. At least 30 per cent of the teaching staff of each school should be men. Again, the interior arrangement of some of the buildings, with very generous communications between offices, libraries, and cafeterias, causes confusion at least during the club hour. Fortunately, the shops never obtrude their uproar at any time; they are all housed in separate buildings. This arrangement is a wise provision, which ought to be emulated at least in every small intermediate-school plant. Again, a critic might point out the existence of an unnecessary amount of fumbling on the part of many pupils in their library work and might call attention to an undue amount of mental inertia in too much listening to pupil products during the socializing periods. These limitations, however, to the extent that they exist, are perhaps the inevitable accompaniments of a total school life so experimental in character that it constitutes almost a revolution in educational procedure.

This article presents fragmentary glimpses of the integrating, normalizing, individualizing, exploratory, and socializing functions of the junior schools of San Antonio. As was said at the beginning, no one of these functions is, or ought to be, definitely segregated from the others; no one of them is exclusively carried out by any single school procedure. Rather do all of them permeate all the aspects of school life. Certainly, clear-sighted leaders and well-trained teachers have caught the spirit of the junior high school movement and are causing it to be realized in full measure in San Antonio. An observer comes away with a renewed conviction that the essence of the junior high school lies not in administrative devices but rather in a radically new conception of the curriculum as a series of carefully directed pupil experiences in fields of subject matter closely related to the needs of boys and girls in their daily lives.

AN EARLY UPWARD EXTENSION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

W. W. HAGGARD

Joliet Township High School and Junior College, Joliet, Illinois

It is natural that, when a movement becomes prominent, various communities or individuals claim credit for initiating the movement. For example, there was considerable speculation a few years ago with regard to the establishment of the first junior high school. It is likewise difficult to determine the date of the establishment of the first public junior college since the movement has been evolutionary. Koos sets 1902 as the date of the establishment of the public junior college in Joliet, Illinois.¹ J. Stanley Brown, former superintendent of the Joliet Township High School and the founder of the public junior college in Joliet, also sets 1902 as the date.² Koos also states that another public junior college was established about 1902 at Goshen, Indiana, and that it was later discontinued.³ It seems to be fully agreed that the only junior colleges existing before 1900 were private junior colleges and that the number was small.

The purpose of this article is not to attempt to establish the fact that the junior college in Joliet was the first public junior college in the United States but simply to describe briefly the early attempt of the Joliet Township High School to promote the upward extension of secondary education. Graduates of the Joliet Township High School were receiving college credit for certain postgraduate courses when William Rainey Harper first made his pronouncement that "the work of the Freshman and Sophomore years [in college] is ordinarily of the same scope and character as that of the preceding years in the

¹ Leonard Vincent Koos, *The Junior College*, I, 2, 4. Research Publications of the University of Minnesota, Education Series, No. 5. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1924.

² J. Stanley Brown, "The Growth and Development of Junior Colleges in the United States," *National Conference of Junior Colleges, 1920, and First Annual Meeting of American Association of Junior Colleges, 1921*, p. 27. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 19, 1922.

³ Leonard Vincent Koos, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

academy or high school."¹ As early as 1903 students who had taken certain courses in science and mathematics in the Joliet Township High School were granted advanced credit by such institutions as the University of Chicago, the University of Illinois, the University of Michigan, the University of Wisconsin, the University of Minnesota, and the University of Pennsylvania.

J. Stanley Brown made the following remarks at the dedication of the first unit of the present plant on April 4, 1901.

Our own great University of Illinois, whose distinguished president [Andrew S. Draper] addresses us this evening, admits our recommended graduates into the Sophomore class without condition and enables them to complete a four-year course in three years. Some of the elements which have tended toward the keeping of the young people in school are: the introduction of a larger number of male teachers; the limited cultivation of athletics; literary contests; the inspiration to go farther than the high school in education; and a more flexible course of study, which makes it possible to consider the temperament, intellectuality, and, in general, the personal equation of the pupil. These secondary schools are the colleges of the people because the vast majority of those who enter never receive any further training. They are, and must continue to be, the most democratic institutions in the land. The aristocratic institution is dying everywhere because it cannot survive when compelled to breathe the air of a democracy.²

The four-year curriculums (then called "courses") outlined in the *First Report of Joliet Township High School* were as follows: classical, Latin-scientific, English, modern-language, commercial, and combination. One three-year curriculum was outlined for the pupils who were able to carry an unusually heavy load. Two special curriculums with the accompanying comments may be quoted.

A FIVE-YEAR COURSE

First year:

Latin, algebra, Greek and Roman history or physiography, English.

Second year:

Latin, plane geometry, medieval and modern history or botany, English.

Third year:

Latin, advanced algebra and solid geometry, English history, physics, literature.

¹ William Rainey Harper, *The Trend in Higher Education*, p. 339. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1905.

² *First Report of Joliet Township High School*, pp. 30-32. Joliet, Illinois: Joliet Township High School Board of Education, 1903.

Fourth year:

Latin, American history, literature, chemistry or plane trigonometry, college algebra.

Fifth year:

Latin, German or French, literature, advanced physics, geology, astronomy.

A SIX-YEAR COURSE

First year:

Latin, physiography, arithmetic, Greek and Roman history, English, algebra.

Second year:

Latin, botany, medieval and modern history, drawing, English, plane geometry.

Third year:

Latin; advanced algebra; solid geometry; German, French, or Spanish; English history; literature; physics.

Fourth year:

Latin; plane trigonometry; college algebra; German, French, or Spanish; American history; literature; chemistry.

Fifth year:

Latin; literature; German, French, or Spanish; analytic chemistry; spherical trigonometry; advanced botany; zoölogy; physiology.

Sixth year:

Latin or literature; analytic geometry; advanced physics; geology; astronomy; political economy; science of government; psychology; German, French, or Spanish.

The growing demand for a greater and more extended opportunity to do high-school work has led to the formation of the five-year course and the six-year course.

The policy of this school has always been to encourage students to remain in school and to continue their work as long as it seemed profitable to do so. The work suggested in the five- and six-year courses is meant to encourage the student to pursue his life-preparation further and to foster the policy of persuading and encouraging the young people to continue in their school work at home.

The opportunity here offered is better than that found in most higher institutions of learning and ought to be appreciated and grasped by the youth of the community. All who are looking forward to a course of study in some college or university may shorten that course one or two years by doing all that can be done here at the home school. Many whose lives are so circumscribed that they may be deprived of the privilege of going away from home to a higher institution of learning may do, under excellent teachers and parental supervision, a great part of the work which is offered at the higher institution.¹

In the paragraphs quoted are found arguments which are advanced today for the establishment of public junior colleges: (1)

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 73-78.

They permit the students to be under the influence of the home during later adolescence. (2) They provide attention for individual students. (3) They provide occupational training of college grade. (4) They offer two years of work acceptable to colleges and universities. (5) They complete the education of those students who will not advance farther. (6) They offer better instruction than that found in the Freshman and Sophomore years of colleges and universities. (7) They provide an upward extension of secondary education for those financially unable to go away to college or university.

Other interesting information is given in the *First Report of Joliet Township High School*. In 1901 the tuition for non-resident high-school pupils was only sixty cents a week. The number of instructors was twenty-nine and the enrolment eight hundred. Thus, the teacher-pupil ratio was 27.6. The median salary for teachers was \$800 a year. As compared with the cost today, the cost per capita of secondary education was then almost negligible, but the results were extraordinary. Students graduating from the Joliet Township High School were prepared to enter universities with advanced standing and were able to command better remuneration in business because they had received more training than that given in the four years of high school.

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF DISCIPLINARY PROBLEM PUPILS IN HIGH SCHOOL

C. T. COLEMAN

Hammond High School, Hammond, Indiana

This article reports a study of 125 pupils in the Hammond High School, Hammond, Indiana, who were disciplinary problem pupils. The purpose was to determine the intelligence and social characteristics of these pupils and to contrast these qualities with those of pupils whose conduct was satisfactory.

The Hammond High School is located in an industrial region which has a distinctly heterogeneous population. More than twenty-five nationalities are represented in the student body. The enrolment at the time this study was made was about 1,400.

Pupils who are tardy without excuse, truant, disobedient, or negligent or who have back work which has not been made up are kept after school. Those who had been kept after school four times or more during each of two consecutive semesters or five times or more during the last of the two semesters were designated as problem pupils. The group of problem pupils was compared with a check group hereafter referred to as the non-problem pupils. The non-problem group was made up of pupils who had in no way exhibited misconduct. Samplings were made in such a way that the problem group and the non-problem group were equal with respect to number, sex, and school grade.

Data were secured from the records of the school and from personal interviews with the pupils. The points of comparison were the intelligence quotients, school records, participation in extra-curriculum activities, family conditions, employment in remunerative work, activities during summer vacations, attitude toward school, interests, and plans for the future.

SEX AND INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS

The boys tended to be problem pupils to a much greater extent than did the girls. Although the number of boys in the school was

approximately equal to the number of girls, 72 per cent of the problem pupils were boys. Nearly one-half of the problem boys and more than one-half of the problem girls were Freshmen. This fact would seem to indicate that pupils, particularly girls, as they advance in high school, either adjust themselves to the regulations of the school or withdraw. The majority of the Freshmen were within the compulsory school age.

Table I shows that the ability of the problem pupils as measured by general-intelligence tests was approximately equal to that of the non-problem pupils. The number of pupils who were below normal

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF 125 PROBLEM PUPILS AND OF 125 NON-PROBLEM PUPILS
ACCORDING TO SEX AND INTELLIGENCE

INTELLIGENCE LEVEL	PROBLEM PUPILS				NON-PROBLEM PUPILS			
	Number of Boys	Number of Girls	Total		Number of Boys	Number of Girls	Total	
			Number	Per Cent			Number	Per Cent
Above normal.....	33	12	45	36.0	33	13	46	36.8
Normal.....	36	21	57	45.6	40	18	58	46.4
Below normal.....	14	2	16	12.8	15	4	19	15.2
Data not available.....	7	0	7	5.6	2	0	2	1.6
Total.....	90	35	125	100.0	90	35	125	100.0

in intelligence was slightly larger in the case of the non-problem pupils than in the case of the problem pupils. However, no significant difference between the two groups existed at any of the levels of intelligence.

These findings agree with those of a study made by LeRoy Wayne Hanna. After a careful and thorough investigation of the relation between intelligence quotients and discipline, Hanna concluded, "It can be said with a good deal of certainty that . . . disciplinary difficulties of a student cannot be predicted by considering merely his intelligence quotient."¹ The evidence presented in this study and that given in Hanna's investigation indicate that disciplinary difficulties in the case of problem pupils cannot be explained on the

¹ LeRoy Wayne Hanna, "The Relation of Discipline in High Schools to the Intelligence Quotients of the Students," p. 69. Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1925.

ground of inferior mental ability nor on the ground that, because of their superior ability, the school work designed for the average pupils does not challenge their capacity.

SCHOOL RECORDS

Table II shows that more than one-fourth of the problem pupils had been retarded in elementary school. The percentage of problem pupils who had been retarded in elementary school is twice the cor-

TABLE II

SCHOOL RECORDS OF 125 PROBLEM PUPILS AND OF 125 NON-PROBLEM PUPILS

	PROBLEM PUPILS		NON-PROBLEM PUPILS	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Accelerated in elementary school.....	25	20.0	34	27.2
Retarded in elementary school.....	36	28.8	18	14.4
Over-age in high school.....	77	61.6	53	42.4
Under-age in high school.....	8	6.4	20	16.0
Attended other high schools.....	21	16.8	10	8.0
Average marks:				
A and B.....	3	2.4	35	28.0
C.....	48	38.4	75	60.0
D and E.....	74	59.2	15	12.0
Weak subject—physical education.....	2	1.6	10	8.0
Strong subject—physical education.....	11	8.8	6	4.8
Failed in one or more subjects.....	91	72.8	27	21.6
Method of traveling to school:				
Walk.....	85	68.0	101	80.8
Ride in private automobile.....	12	9.6	3	2.4
Journey to school requires more than thirty minutes.....	2	1.6	10	8.0

responding percentage in the non-problem group. The large amount of retardation in elementary school was naturally followed by considerable over-ageness in high school. The average age of both boys and girls in the problem group was approximately one-half year greater than the average age of those in the non-problem group. The apparently excessive amount of over-ageness in both the problem and the non-problem groups is accounted for by the fact that many of the pupils had entered the high school from eight-year elementary schools while the age-grade was determined on the basis of a 7-4 system.

More than two-thirds of the pupils who had attended other high schools were problem pupils. A study of individual cases revealed

that practically all the pupils who had been transferred from other high schools were living with their parents at permanent addresses. It is probable, therefore, that only an insignificant number had changed schools because they had been problem pupils in the schools attended previously.

There was a high correlation between unsatisfactory conduct and unsatisfactory marks. Approximately three-fifths of the problem pupils received averages below C on a five-point scale. None received an average of A, and only three secured an average of B. Four problem pupils had been given failing marks in more than one-half of their subjects.

The only subject in which the two groups showed a significant difference is physical education. Nearly twice as many problem pupils as non-problem pupils were strong in this subject. On the other hand, physical education was the weak subject for five times as many non-problem pupils as problem pupils.

Approximately three-fourths of the problem pupils had failed in one or more subjects in high school. Of the total number of semester failures, 85.2 per cent were in the problem group. The problem pupils who failed averaged failure in two and one-half subjects, and nearly one-third of those who failed had to repeat subjects two or three times. Only about one-fifth of the non-problem pupils failed in one or more subjects, and their failures averaged but one and one-half subjects, while only two non-problem pupils had to repeat subjects more than once. The fact that the two groups were approximately equal in intelligence makes the larger number of failures and re-failures among the problem pupils much more significant.

The problem pupils were frequently absent or tardy. Seventy-three per cent of the total number of absences and 86 per cent of the total amount of tardiness in the two groups were among pupils of the problem group.

The pupils whose methods of traveling to school were the easiest were most often the problem pupils. Four-fifths of those who came to school regularly in private automobiles were problem pupils. On the other hand, the number of those who walked was much larger in the case of the non-problem pupils than in the case of the problem pupils. No problem pupil beyond the compulsory school age traveled

for more than thirty minutes in making the journey between school and home. Ten non-problem pupils traveled distances requiring more than thirty minutes.

EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

Table III shows the number of pupils in the two groups who participated in extra-curriculum activities. A smaller number of problem pupils than of non-problem pupils occupied positions of responsibility in activities of this type. Although a larger number of the problem pupils participated in athletic sports, only about one-third of the boys who were chosen for the teams were problem pupils. An

TABLE III
PARTICIPATION OF 125 PROBLEM PUPILS AND OF 125 NON-PROBLEM PUPILS
IN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES*

ACTIVITY	PROBLEM PUPILS			NON-PROBLEM PUPILS		
	Number of Boys	Number of Girls	Total	Number of Boys	Number of Girls	Total
Curricular and social clubs.....	31	28	59	25	28	53
Honorary clubs.....	2	1	3	6	14	20
Athletic sports.....	46	9	55	31	15	46
Musical organizations.....	8	3	11	19	5	24
Publications and plays.....	7	5	12	5	3	8
Offices in student government....	0	0	0	3	1	4

* Each club, musical organization, or athletic sport was considered an activity in this tabulation.

even smaller proportion of the problem pupils succeeded in advanced musical organizations. None of the problem pupils included in the study was an officer in the student government, and only three belonged to honorary clubs. The types of activity in which the number of problem pupils exceeded the number of non-problem pupils were curricular and social clubs, athletic sports, and publications and plays.

NATIONALITY AND FAMILY CONDITIONS

Table IV shows that the percentage of those who were children of American-born parents was much larger in the case of the problem pupils than in the case of the non-problem pupils. Nearly four-fifths of the pupils in the problem group were of American descent as compared with three-fifths of the pupils in the non-problem group.

More non-problem pupils than problem pupils were living in

broken homes. The cause of the broken homes in four-fifths of the cases was the death of one or both of the parents, which had occurred in the families of nearly twice as many non-problem pupils as problem pupils. Separation of the parents had caused the disorganization of the homes of twice as many problem pupils as non-problem pupils.

The average number of children in the families of the problem pupils was 3.41 and in the families of the non-problem pupils 3.71.

TABLE IV

FAMILY CONDITIONS OF 125 PROBLEM PUPILS AND OF 125 NON-PROBLEM PUPILS

	PROBLEM PUPILS		NON-PROBLEM PUPILS	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Nationality:				
American-born parents.....	97	77.6	75	60.0
One or both parents foreign-born.....	27	21.6	48	38.4
Foreign-born pupils.....	1	0.8	2	1.6
One or both of the parents dead.....	14	11.2	26	20.8
Parents separated.....	6	4.8	3	2.4
Oldest child in the family.....	41	32.8	36	28.8
Youngest child in the family.....	30	24.0	39	31.2
Only child in the family.....	14	11.2	14	11.2
Employment of father or stepfather:				
Railroad worker or driver of motor vehicle..	18	14.4	10	8.0
Laborer.....	3	2.4	13	10.4
Retired.....	4	3.2	1	0.8
Mothers or stepmothers gainfully employed...	20	16.0	20	16.0

However, there was no indication that an only child in the family was a problem in school. There seemed to be a tendency for the oldest child in the family to be a problem pupil and for the youngest to be a non-problem pupil. A probable reason for this situation is that the older children in the family pass on to their younger brothers and sisters the information they have acquired with regard to the demands of the school.

Pupils whose fathers or stepfathers were railroad workers or drivers of motor vehicles or whose fathers or stepfathers were retired tended to be disciplinary problems. Among those whose fathers were laborers, the proportion of problem pupils was approximately one in five. No influence of the father's employment was noted in the conduct of children whose fathers were employed as clerical workers,

civil-service workers, salesmen, skilled tradesmen, managers, and business owners.

There was no indication that the gainful employment of mothers or stepmothers had any effect on the conduct of the pupils.

OTHER CHARACTERISTICS

Engaging in remunerative work during the school year did not seem to influence the conduct of the pupils in school. However, a study of the regular and occasional employment engaged in showed that, of the pupils who worked, the problem pupils tended to do the occasional work and the non-problem pupils the regular work.

The manner in which the problem pupils spent their summer vacations tended to be more luxurious than that in which the non-problem pupils spent theirs. Twice as many problem pupils spent part of their vacations at summer resorts. The number who attended camps and traveled during the summer was slightly larger in the case of the problem pupils than in the case of the non-problem pupils. Large numbers of problem pupils attended summer school, probably because the rate of failure in that group was excessively high. Fewer problem pupils than non-problem pupils worked during the summer.

During the personal interviews the pupils were rated on their attitude toward school. Nearly two-thirds of the problem pupils were considered neutral toward school, out of sympathy with it, or antagonistic toward it. On the other hand, more than two-thirds of the non-problem pupils were rated as interested in school or enthusiastic about it.

Interests and amusements which require physical activity, such as athletics and vagrant trips, were popular with the problem pupils. Amusements that were favorites with the non-problem pupils were those of an aesthetic type, such as music and nature trips. The two groups seemed equally interested in reading, art, dancing, mechanics, theaters, and motion-picture shows.

Definite educational or occupational plans for the future did not seem to influence the conduct of the pupils in high school. There was no inherent difference between the two groups with regard to their plans for finishing high school and for attending college nor with

regard to the formation of definite decisions as to occupation. When the choice of occupations was considered, it was found that the majority of those who expected to follow aviation were problem pupils. This occupation requires physical activity, which is a characteristic of the amusements preferred by the problem pupils.

SUMMARY

1. Nearly three-fourths of the disciplinary problem pupils in this study were boys. Only 28 per cent of the pupils in the problem group were girls.

2. The pupils in the two groups were of approximately equal ability. The results of general-intelligence tests showed that the two groups were about as nearly equal in intelligence as if the pupils had been chosen on the basis of test scores.

3. Unsatisfactory scholastic achievement accompanied unsatisfactory conduct. Twice as many problem pupils as non-problem pupils had been retarded in elementary school. In high school more than five-sixths of the semester failures were in the problem group.

4. The majority of the leaders in extra-curriculum activities were non-problem pupils. Of the pupils included in this study, all who were officers in the student government, a large majority of those who were members of honorary clubs, two-thirds of those who were members of advanced musical organizations, and approximately two-thirds of the boys who had won places on the athletic teams were non-problem pupils.

5. A larger number of the problem pupils than of the non-problem pupils were of American descent. The difference between the percentage of the problem pupils and the percentage of the non-problem pupils who were children of American-born parents is 17.6.

6. Finally, the evidence indicates that the problem pupils lacked fundamental qualities of character. They lacked determination. Although of equal intellectual ability, they failed and re-failed in more subjects than did the non-problem pupils. No problem pupil beyond the compulsory school age traveled an excessively long distance to school. The number of pupils who walked to school was larger in the case of the non-problem pupils than in the case of the problem pupils.

The problem pupils lacked the quality of promptness. Eighty-six per cent of the total amount of tardiness was caused by the pupils in the problem group.

The problem pupils seemed to lack trustworthiness and a sense of responsibility. Among those who were gainfully employed after school and on Saturday, the problem pupils tended to do the occasional work and the non-problem pupils the regular work. Apparently the lack of trustworthiness and responsibility on the part of the problem pupils was recognized by their fellow-pupils, since they failed to elect the problem pupils to student offices. The unsatisfactory school work done by the problem pupils contrasted with the satisfactory work done by the non-problem pupils, in view of the fact that the two groups were of approximately equal ability, also indicates that the problem pupils lacked a sense of responsibility.

RECORDS OF STUDENTS WHO ENTERED UNIVERSITY WITH FRESHMAN SCHOLARSHIPS

GEORGE R. MOON
University of Chicago

Scholarships for outstanding high-school graduates are offered by many colleges and universities. High scholastic standing is usually one prerequisite for consideration for such scholarships. In addition to high marks in high school, the requirements often include evidences of leadership, civic worth, business ability, accomplishment in public speaking or music, and general Christian attitude. What becomes of the holders of such scholarships? Do they make records which are strong enough to justify the expectations of their high-school principals and the costs to the institutions? The purpose of this study is to answer these questions by analyzing the records of students who have held Freshman scholarships at the University of Chicago.

For many years the University of Chicago has granted a number of Freshman scholarships, each of which covers the first year's tuition. These scholarships have been awarded on two different bases. One group of awards, the honor entrance scholarships, are now thirty in number. To be eligible for consideration for an honor entrance scholarship, a high-school pupil is expected to rank high in his graduating class, usually first. He must also be recommended by his principal as a student of serious purpose and real promise. Last year the thirty recipients of the awards were selected by a faculty committee from approximately one hundred recommended students. A similar procedure was followed during the years covered by this study.

The other group of scholarships, formerly eleven in number but recently increased to thirty, are awarded on the basis of competitive examinations given annually at the University. To be eligible for the examinations, a high-school Senior must have an average in all academic subjects of at least 88. He must also be especially recom-

mended for the competition by his high-school principal. Examinations are given in the following subjects: English, American history, chemistry, physics, botany, mathematics, French, German, Latin, and Spanish. A student competes in only one subject. The number of scholarships awarded in each subject depends largely on the number of competitors.

This study was completed in the autumn of 1929 and consisted in an examination of the records of all students holding either of these scholarships who entered the University of Chicago during the years 1919-25, inclusive. The former year was selected because it was little affected by the World War; the latter, because four full years had elapsed, in which the students should have completed the college course. The following items were considered worthy of study: (1) the average of the grades made in the University, (2) the percentage of scholarship-holders who earned the baccalaureate degree, (3) the percentage who received scholastic honors, and (4) the number who achieved positions of leadership among the student body. Comparisons were made not only between students holding the two different types of scholarships but, wherever possible, between scholarship-holders and the student body as a whole.

The averages of the grade points of each of the two groups of scholarship-holders are presented in Table I. For an understanding of this table, an explanation of the grade-point system in use at the University of Chicago is essential. Only five letter grades are used, and each letter has a grade-point equivalent as follows: A = 6 points, B = 4 points, C = 2 points, D = 0 points, and F (failure) = -2 points. An average of C (2 grade points) is required in all subjects taken, although credit is given for subjects in which D (0 grade points) is received.

Comparisons between the records of the scholarship-holders as presented in Table I and the records of unselected Freshmen are necessary in order to learn the true status of the students with scholarships. The writer recently completed a study of two thousand students who entered the University of Chicago as Freshmen during the years 1924-27, inclusive. The grade-point average of this group was 2.64. Each of the two groups of scholarship-holders far exceeds this average. More than 90 per cent of the scholar-

ship-holders reached or exceeded the average of the unselected students.

The fact that 15, or 4.1 per cent, of the 368 students who entered with scholarships made unsatisfactory averages appears to be worth attention. Approximately 30 per cent of all Freshmen who enrolled during the years covered by this study failed to make satisfactory records in the University. It should be stated that the present system of selective admissions has materially reduced this rate of

TABLE I
GRADE-POINT AVERAGES OF 368 STUDENTS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF
CHICAGO WHO ENTERED WITH SCHOLARSHIPS DURING
THE YEARS 1919-25

GRADE-POINT AVERAGE	STUDENTS WHO HELD HONOR ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS		STUDENTS WHO HELD SCHOLARSHIPS SECURED BY COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION		TOTAL	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
No courses completed	0	0.0	1	1.4	1	0.3
-2 to -1.1.....	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
-1 to -0.1.....	1	0.3	0	0.0	1	0.3
0 to 0.9.....	2	0.7	0	0.0	2	0.5
1 to 1.9.....	12	4.0	0	0.0	12	3.3
2 to 2.9.....	46	15.4	3	4.3	49	13.3
3 to 3.9.....	97	32.6	11	15.7	108	29.3
4 to 4.9.....	101	33.9	29	41.4	130	35.3
5 to 6.....	39	13.1	26	37.1	65	17.7
Total.....	298	100.0	70	99.9	368	100.0
Average.....		3.83		4.63		3.98

failure. It is noteworthy that, with the exception of the one student who completed no courses, not one of the seventy students who entered with scholarships secured by competitive examination failed to make the required average of two grade points.

The percentage of Freshmen who continue through school and earn degrees is one criterion of the success of any college. Approximately 45 per cent of all students admitted as Freshmen during the period 1919-25 earned degrees at the University of Chicago. Fifty-nine per cent of the students with honor entrance scholarships and 72.9 per cent of those with scholarships secured by competitive examination, or 61.7 per cent of the entire group, have received degrees at the University. No effort was made to determine how

many had transferred to other colleges and received degrees there. The comparison on the basis of degrees earned, as well as the comparison based on grade points, shows the scholarship-holders to be superior to the student body as a whole. It likewise shows the superiority of selection by competitive examination over selection by a committee.

Financial difficulties cause many students to withdraw from schools with high rates of tuition. It is probable that finances played a greater part in the withdrawal of the scholarship-holders than in the withdrawal of students not holding scholarships, as applicants for Freshman scholarships are not considered unless there

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE OF SCHOLARSHIP-HOLDERS AND OF A COMPLETE FRESHMAN CLASS
WHO HAD WITHDRAWN PERMANENTLY FROM THE UNIVERSITY BY
THE CLOSE OF THE SCHOOL SESSIONS INDICATED

Group	First Quarter	Second Quarter	First Year	Second Year	Third Year
Students who held honor entrance scholarships.....	5.7	7.4	20.1	32.6	36.9
Students who held scholarships secured by competitive examination	2.9	2.9	18.6	27.1	31.4
A complete Freshman class.....	0.0	0.0	32.0	44.9	51.0

is an apparent financial need. An average of three grade points is required to hold a Freshman scholarship for the first three quarters. A scholarship is not renewed beyond the first year if a student has an average of less than four grade points. Failure to have the scholarship renewed for a second or third year might force the holder to change his educational plans.

The time at which members of the group left the University permanently is shown in Table II. In this table the first year is divided into quarters, since the amount of mortality during the first or second quarter is important. Table II shows, as would probably be expected, that great losses occurred at the end of the first year. The losses during the second year are also high; the loss for the group of students holding honor entrance scholarships is almost as great as the loss for the complete Freshman class. The losses during the third year are large enough to merit further study.

Table III presents an analysis of the grade-point averages, according to the length of time spent in the University, of the holders of Freshman scholarships who withdrew before graduation. There is clearly a relation between the time of permanent withdrawal from the University and the grade points earned. The students who withdrew during the Freshman and the Sophomore years, especially those who dropped out at the close of their first and fourth quarters, were below the average of the group as a whole. The statement should be added that the grade-point average of all hold-

TABLE III
GRADE-POINT AVERAGES OF SCHOLARSHIP-HOLDERS
WHO WITHDREW PERMANENTLY

Quarter in Which Students Withdrew	Number of Students Who Withdrew	Grade-Point Average
First.....	18	3.17
Second.....	5	3.50
Third.....	49	3.58
Fourth.....	14	3.00
Fifth.....	7	3.50
Sixth.....	22	3.77
Seventh.....	8	3.50
Eighth.....	3	4.17
Ninth.....	5	4.70
Total.....	131

ers of Freshman scholarships who graduated was 4.24. Those students who left after three years in the University had a better grade-point average than those who earned degrees.

Another factor of interest is the number of scholastic honors earned by the students holding Freshman scholarships. Approximately 9.0 per cent of all graduates of the University of Chicago become members of Phi Beta Kappa. Thirty-nine and two-tenths per cent of the graduates who had held honor entrance scholarships and 60.8 per cent of the graduates who had held scholarships secured by competitive examination were elected to Phi Beta Kappa. Only 17.3 per cent of the students with scholarships secured by examination and 42.7 per cent of the students with honor entrance scholarships who received degrees were not awarded special honors at grad-

uation. More than 80 per cent of all students who receive baccalaureate degrees fail to win such honors. The comparative figures just given are, of all those quoted, by far the most favorable to the scholarship-holders.

The relation between the sex of students and the average grades earned has interested many research workers. For years every study completed at the University of Chicago has shown that the women as a group have exceeded the men in grade average by a significant amount. In these two groups of scholarship-holders there were 171 men and 197 women, with the same percentage of each sex earning degrees. The men, however, averaged 4.04 grade points, while the women averaged only 3.94. Although the probable error of the difference of the means is so large as to render this difference statistically insignificant, the fact stands that this is the first study of a considerable group of students at the University of Chicago in which the men were found to lead the women in grade average.

The problem of judging which of the scholarship-holders had shown evidences of leadership among the student body was the most difficult. The only measure of leadership considered was the selection during the Senior year as student marshal or student aide. Each year, from the students who remain from a class of approximately eight hundred Freshmen, ten men of the Senior class are chosen to be marshals and ten women to be aides. Successful participation in a variety of student activities with at least a fair grade average is essential for consideration. Table IV shows the number and percentage of holders of the Freshman scholarships who were selected for these highly coveted positions as compared with the number of an unselected Freshman class. With one exception the percentage of each group of scholarship-holders who gained this distinction is markedly higher than the percentage of unselected students. The generalization that students with scholarships are able to succeed in extra-curriculum activities appears to be justified.

This study answers for the high-school principal questions with regard to the relative success of the students whom he recommends for scholarships. These students are, in general, superior in academic undertakings. They win in large numbers the scholastic honors offered by the University. Many of them are able to assume places

of leadership among the other students on the campus. A large majority continue through the University and earn the baccalaureate degree. From the point of view of the University, the study

TABLE IV

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOLARSHIP-HOLDERS WHO WERE APPOINTED UNIVERSITY MARSHALS OR AIDES AND NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN A FRESHMAN CLASS WHO RECEIVED SUCH APPOINTMENTS

	STUDENTS WHO HELD HONOR SCHOLARSHIPS		STUDENTS WHO HELD SCHOLARSHIPS SECURED BY COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION		STUDENTS IN A FRESHMAN CLASS	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Number who matriculated.	136	162	35	35	475	325
Number appointed marshals or aides.....	9	8	5	1	10	10
Percentage appointed marshals or aides.....	6.62	4.94	14.29	2.86	2.11	3.08

shows that the scholarships attract a group of Freshmen who are superior students when judged by several criteria. In the light of the results of similar studies, some of the larger universities are rapidly increasing the number of scholarships for Freshmen. At the University of Chicago the number of scholarships for first-year students has been more than doubled within the past two years.

THE PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES IN KANSAS

REES H. HUGHES

Superintendent of Schools, Parsons, Kansas

Public junior colleges in Kansas are rapidly becoming popular, as shown by an appreciable increase during the past decade in the number of such colleges and in their enrolments. In 1917 the state legislature passed the following law.

The board of education of any city of the first or second class and the board of trustees of any county high school may provide for an extension of the high-school course of study by establishing for high-school graduates a two-year course in advance of the course prescribed for accredited high schools by the State Board of Education: Provided, That at a general election, or at a special election called for the purpose, in the manner provided by law, a majority of the electors voting on the proposition shall favor such an extension of the high-school course of study. For maintenance of such extension, either wholly or in part, the board of education in any city of the first or second class may levy a tax not exceeding two mills on the dollar of the assessed valuation of the city, and the board of trustees of any county high school may levy a tax not exceeding one-tenth of a mill on the dollar of the assessed valuation of the county, and such levy or levies may be in addition to any other levy or levies provided by law for the support of schools in cities of the first and second class or for the support of county high schools.

The first public junior college in Kansas was organized in Holton in 1917. Campbell College, located in Holton, gave up its work as a four-year institution and transferred its property to the Board of Education of Holton, which organized the school into a public junior college according to the provisions of the law. However, this college was discontinued after three years. Marysville started a junior college in 1917, but it did not open the second year.

The following public junior colleges were then organized in the state: Fort Scott in 1918; Garden City in 1919; Arkansas City in 1922; Kansas City, Parsons, Coffeyville, and Iola in 1923; Independence in 1925; Eldorado in 1927; and Hutchinson in 1928. These ten institutions have maintained a steady growth since their organ-

ization. They are approved by the State Board of Education, and the quality and the type of the instruction are such that their students may transfer their credits to standard four-year colleges and universities.

The figures given in the tables in this article were furnished in each case by the administrative officer in charge of the school and show facts relative to the present status of the ten public junior colleges in Kansas.

Table I shows, first, the number of students enrolled in each of the ten junior colleges in 1929-30. The total enrolment in 1928-29 was 1,462 as compared with 1,696 in 1929-30. Table I also shows the number of students who graduated from the junior colleges in 1928-29. There were 244 graduates in 1927-28 as compared with 262 in 1928-29.

The total number of students graduating from high schools in the ten cities in 1928-29 was 1,618, as shown in Table I. Of these, 636 pupils, or 39 per cent, entered the ten junior colleges; 156 pupils, or 10 per cent, went away to college; and 826 pupils, or 51 per cent, did not continue in school.

Table I shows the number of students enrolled in each of the ten junior colleges who live outside the school district. Twenty-six per cent of the students enrolled in 1929-30 live outside the school districts in which the junior colleges are located. Only four of the districts charge tuition for pupils outside the district: Eldorado charges \$50 a year for pupils living outside the county but makes no charge for pupils living in the county; Garden City charges \$2.40 for each semester hour; Hutchinson charges \$72 a year; and Kansas City charges \$12 a month.

Table II shows that 36 per cent of the graduates of the ten junior colleges entered professional courses in colleges or universities and that 19 per cent enrolled in general college courses. It was also found that seventy-five graduates, or 29 per cent, are now teaching and that forty-one graduates, or 16 per cent, have not continued their education.

Table III gives the number of full-time teachers in the ten junior colleges, the number of part-time teachers, the average number of hours taught weekly, and the average salaries for men and for

TABLE I

STATISTICAL DATA WITH REGARD TO THE TEN PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES IN KANSAS

	AR-KAN-SAS CITY	COP-FEY-VILLE	EL-DO-RADO	FORT SCOTT	GAR-DEN CITY	HUTCH-INSON	INDE-PEND-ENCE	IOLA	KAN-SAS CITY	PAR-SONS	TOTAL
Number of Students Enrolled in the Junior Colleges in 1929-30											
Freshmen:											
Men.....	40	36	43	39	17	97	48	48	128	59	555
Women.....	54	32	43	34	23	86	45	53	84	60	514
Total.....	94	68	86	73	40	183	93	101	212	119	1,069
Sophomores:											
Men.....	23	20	16	27	11	40	19	21	55	26	258
Women.....	20	18	22	19	14	44	28	33	33	34	265
Total.....	43	38	38	46	25	84	47	54	88	60	523
Special students:											
Men.....	1	5	6	4	8	0	0	1	3	9	37
Women.....	3	5	10	6	8	6	0	2	9	18	67
Total.....	4	10	16	10	16	6	0	3	12	27	104
Total enrolment.....	141	116	140	129	81	273	140	158	312	206	1,696
Number of High-School Seniors Enrolled in the Junior Colleges in 1929-30*											
Men.....	1	5	3	7	7	2	3	6	2	4	40
Women.....	3	3	8	6	6	1	4	4	0	0	35
Total.....	4	8	11	13	13	3	7	10	2	4	75
Number of Graduates from the Junior Colleges in 1928-29											
Number of graduates.....	37	23	25	34	7	22	25	49	40	262
Graduates from High Schools in 1928-29											
Number of high-school graduates.....	176	135	120	109	66	237	124	112	379	160	1,618
Number of high-school graduates attending college away from home.....	23	7	23	17	6	16	14	7	26	17	156
Number of high-school graduates attending junior college in home town.....	56	40	53	40	22	130	56	45	121	73	636
Number of Students in the Junior Colleges from Outside the Local School Districts in 1929-30											
Freshmen.....	25	4	40	5	30	52	50	23	44	273
Sophomores.....	17	6	10	8	15	7	28	6	18	115
Total.....	42	10	50	49	13	45	59	78	29	62	437

* High-school Seniors who have completed twenty-eight credits in high school are permitted to enrol in certain junior-college courses.

TABLE II
COURSES BEING STUDIED BY 146 STUDENTS WHO GRADUATED IN 1928-29 AND WHO ARE CONTINUING THEIR EDUCATION

Name of Course	Number of Students	Percentage of Graduates (262)
General college course.....	51	19
Teacher training.....	33	13
Engineering.....	27	10
Commerce.....	14	5
Law.....	11	4
Medicine.....	8	3
Home economics.....	2	1
All courses.....	146	56

TABLE III
INFORMATION WITH REGARD TO TEACHERS EMPLOYED AND INSTRUCTION OFFERED IN THE TEN PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES IN KANSAS

	AR-KANSAS CITY	COP-FEY-VILLE	ELDO-RADO	FORT SCOTT	GAR-DEN CITY	HUTCH-INSON	INDE-PEND-ENCE	IOLA	KAN-SAS CITY	PAR-SONS	ALL JUN-IOR COL-LEGES
Teachers in the Junior Colleges											
Number of full-time teachers.....	6	2	6	3	5	10	7	3	6	1	49
Number of teachers teaching part time in the high school.....	5	10	5	5	1	6	4	8	7	17	68
Average number of hours taught weekly	16	16	14	20	15	16	15	20	20	16	17
Average annual salary for men.....	\$2,500	\$2,341	\$2,050	\$1,960	\$2,400	\$1,975	\$1,920	\$2,340	\$2,330	\$2,202
Average annual salary for women.....	\$1,900	\$1,841	\$1,840	\$1,723	\$2,100	\$1,835	\$1,745	\$2,423	\$2,050	\$1,940
Number of Credit Hours of Instruction Offered											
General psychology...	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Methods and management.....	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
English.....	18	16	20	20	19	20	30	19	20	28	21.9
Languages.....	25	25	31	20	38	40	40	20	70	20	32.9
Mathematics.....	13	23	23	22	13	20	23	18	32	21	20.8
Biological sciences.....	15	10	10	15	15	20	0	10	20	20	13.5
Physical sciences.....	15	20	20	20	33	20	20	20	25	20	21.3
Social sciences.....	26	35	31	20	66	30	35	30	25	20	31.8
Other subjects.....	20	50	12	22	0	31	22	35	14	89	29.5
Total.....	141	188	156	148	193	190	188	161	215*	227	180.7

* Kansas City, in addition to the courses listed, has special courses in the teacher-training department.

women. It also shows the number of credit hours of instruction offered. The ten junior colleges are offering two courses in education: three hours of general psychology and six hours of methods and management. Both of these courses are required of students who desire a teacher's certificate from the State Board of Education. This is a three-year certificate, renewable for three-year periods for life. It is issued to students who have completed sixty hours of college work, nine hours of which must consist of the two courses in education mentioned. It permits the holder to teach in any elementary school, junior high school, or two-year high school in the state. In addition to the courses listed in Table III, five schools are

TABLE IV
VALUATION OF THE TEN PUBLIC JUNIOR-COLLEGE
DISTRICTS IN KANSAS

District	Valuation
Arkansas City.....	\$ 17,600,000
Coffeyville.....	17,160,155
Eldorado.....	11,995,087
Fort Scott.....	10,000,000
Garden City.....	5,445,089
Hutchinson.....	33,288,894
Independence.....	15,773,586
Iola.....	7,293,526
Kansas City.....	143,000,000
Parsons.....	15,672,838

offering courses in commerce; four, courses in home economics; and four, industrial courses, namely, printing, drawing, and mechanics.

The ten junior colleges are housed in the buildings with the senior high schools. The high-school principals are the administrative officers in six of the junior colleges; in one junior college the superintendent of schools acts as the dean; and in three of the junior colleges, the deans have no relation to the senior high schools.

The valuations of the ten public junior-college districts are shown in Table IV.

The figures given in this article indicate some facts which should receive the attention of those in charge of the public junior colleges in Kansas. A few of these facts follow.

1. Less than 50 per cent of the students enrolled in the junior college in the first year remain for the second year.

2. Although only 19 per cent of the graduates continue with general college courses, the junior colleges seem to have specialized in this one type of work. Thirty-six per cent of the graduates enter professional courses, and they should be able to pursue suitable pre-professional courses in junior college. Twenty-nine per cent of the graduates enter teaching, but these have been able to secure little training for teaching in junior college. Sixteen per cent of the graduates do not continue their education, and these should be able to secure suitable vocational training or finishing courses in junior college.

3. Less than 50 per cent of the high-school graduates in communities having junior colleges enter these institutions. However, increased enrolments may be expected as the junior colleges become better established in the communities and as a wider range of courses is offered.

4. While twenty-six per cent of the students enrolled in the junior colleges live outside the school districts where they attend junior college, no tuition is charged these students in six of the colleges, and the tuition charged in the four others covers only a small part of the cost. This practice does not seem right in principle. The junior-college district is too small. The junior college should plan to serve a district with a radius of at least twenty miles, and the cost of operation should be borne by the district or by the district with the aid of the state.

5. In some cases the courses overlap, and the activities duplicate, those in the senior high school. A reorganization should be effected which will co-ordinate more closely and more efficiently these two units in the public-school system.

METHODS OF SECURING A VITAL AND HONEST SCHOOL INFORMATION SERVICE FOR PATRONS

J. ERLE GRINNELL

North Dakota School of Forestry, Bottineau, North Dakota

That every educator wants his school, and public education in general, to enjoy the appreciation and support of its patrons is axiomatic. In many cases he does not secure such support because of his failure to recognize the opportunities for publicity offered by the local newspaper and the best sources of news in the school. On the other hand, the educator who is aware of the opportunity and the obligation to supply items of news and who can sense news values can make regular contributions to the press of genuine interest and benefit. A challenge is always before him, What are the schools doing for the children, and how are they doing it? If these questions are answered satisfactorily and completely, the public will be given information which, skilfully handled, will awaken the community and secure the friendly support of the majority and the intelligent co-operation of the more thoughtful minority.

The following are some of the aspects of the public schools which should be presented through the local press.

1. Retardation and acceleration: causes and remedies.
2. Mid-year promotions: purposes served by such promotions.
3. Changes and innovations in curriculums.
4. Studies of achievement.
5. Physical examinations: causes of the defects found and remedies for these defects.
6. Opportunities gained through high-school education. Information on this aspect of the school is designed to reach the parents of children who are hesitant about entering high school and to encourage the children to continue their education.
7. Projects undertaken in various departments of the school—domestic-science, manual-training, commercial, agriculture, general-science, biology, etc.

8. Exceptional pupils or exceptional achievements in special fields; for example, a young scientist, a story writer, a butterfly collector.

9. Successful graduates. Stories about successful graduates always have a stimulating effect on the pupils and illustrate the value of education.

10. The meaning of the school to the community: comparison of real-estate values in towns with and without good schools.

11. Statistics. These should be presented in attractive forms and should show the growth of the school, the needs of the school, how the school dollar is spent, how the tax dollar is spent, etc.

12. Campaigns, contests, and the like: relation of these activities to the educative purposes of the school.

13. School plans and policies: careful explanations of the regulations as to attendance, of the system of marking, of the home-room plan, etc.

14. Aims and ideals of public education: relation of specific courses and projects to these aims.

15. Activities of the pupils. All activities are legitimate news.

16. The superiority of the local school over neighboring schools: courses, policies, equipment, staff, etc.

17. General organization and financial program of the school.

18. Activities of the parent-teacher association. Much can be done to direct the activities of parent-teacher organizations by skillful exposition in the newspapers.

The objection may be raised that much of the most important information with regard to the school is too technical for public understanding and interest. The accurate and interesting reporting of school news is not easy, but every school man who would serve efficiently must either acquire the necessary skill or organize a publicity service through the capable members of his staff. Frequently editors or reporters will assist in putting the news into good form. In that case only accurate reporting is required.

The following headlines and outlines of articles found in newspapers in a recent survey made by the writer are illustrative of some of the best publicity for schools.

1. Woton School Pupils Working on Projects. [This article appeared on the first page and told of work being done in the elementary school.]

2. Enrolment at High School Has Increased. [This article appeared on the first page.]

3. 104 Teachers in County Schools Draw \$90,000 Pay. All but 5 of Morton County Rural Instructors Hold First-Grade Certificates. [A general discussion of the educational status of Morton County as compared with the rest of the state.]

4. An article dealing with school statistics, including enrolment, attendance, failures, and honors, with an explanation of regulations as to attendance and a plea to the parents for co-operation in seeing that the children attend regularly.

5. An article giving the opinions of patrons with regard to athletics and discussing the sacrifices made for athletics and the training involved.

6. 50 Mothers Visit School on Tuesday. Sponsored by Parent-Teachers. [This article appeared on the first page.]

7. Minimum test results given as news on the first page.

8. Picture of a new school plant, reproduction of the plans, and a history of the project. This article gave excellent information and covered more than one-half the first page.

9. Students Show Import of Commercial Course. [This article was the leading article on the first page and gave an account of an exhibit of the work accomplished by the pupils in the commercial course and an exposition of the purposes of the course.]

10. Parents Urged To Send Children to Religious Classes. [A story in an outside column on the first page with four headlines.]

11. High-School Athletics, Student Affairs Are Topics of Discussion at Rotary Meet. Show Interest.

A group of senior high school boys furnished the principal part of the program. . . .

12. Who Is Working in High School? [This article gave statistics as to the number of pupils and teachers and the minimum, the maximum, and the average number of subjects carried by the pupils. Parents were encouraged to insist that children study at home. The failures and successes of the boys were compared with the failures and successes of the girls. The article ended with a plea to the parents for co-operation with the school authorities in securing satisfactory work from the pupils.]

13. 2,107 Now in City Schools. [This first-page article discussed the growing enrolment and encouraged regular attendance, giving records of attendance and tardiness in the separate schools. Visits by parents to schools were recommended. More than a half-column was given to a discussion of the work in various fields in the high school and to a report on the records of scholarship in the high school.]

14. Your School and Mine. [This was an interestingly written article on the first page, setting forth facts about demonstration lessons given in the schools of the city.]

Many of the articles and stories referred to are of the kind that possess good news value at almost any time. Others depend for their effectiveness on immediate appearance in the paper. With these two types of news available, the good educator need never be at a loss for publicity material to promote interest in the schools, which is vital to the welfare of public education.

COLLECTING AND WRITING THE NEWS

As important as the ability to recognize effective news is a definite arrangement for collecting and preparing the news for the paper. If this matter is left to immature high-school pupils, unguided by expert advice and assistance, the result will inevitably be irregular contributions and unsatisfactory composition. Children, even Seniors in high school, should certainly not be expected to carry the responsibility of giving publicity to the affairs of the school. No high school is so poorly manned but that one teacher with some skill in composition can be found who, by working with the administrator and by utilizing the best talent in the school, can systematically supply material for publicity to the newspapers.

In communities of medium size and in many of the smaller places the most desirable method of insuring a constant supply of well-written, effective school news would probably be the organization of a school news service in connection with the English department. The head of the department, the director of the school paper, or one of the other teachers could be the manager of the service. The teachers and the more skilled of the writers for the school paper could be made to realize the added training secured through writing spirited news for the local newspapers. Efforts should be made to utilize all the channels of news in the school. Teachers in all departments should co-operate either by sending information to the office of the superintendent, where it would be available for the writers, or by giving the facts to the reporters for the school paper as they make their rounds in the school. Training in writing news and in detecting news of value should be given in the English courses. The work in writing for the newspapers should be discussed in meetings of the English department and in conferences of the high-school and elementary-school teachers. Credit should be given pupils for meritori-

ous work in gathering and writing items of news. Writing for the high-school paper should give practice in writing news correctly and should encourage resourcefulness in searching out the less obvious, but often more valuable, news stories.

With such a plan in operation, the superintendent and other administrative officers would be in a position to supply valuable informative items without the added burden of putting them into presentable form for public attention. A short experience in ferreting out feature stories and general information of public appeal and in capitalizing promptly on the news stories requiring immediate presentation would engender interest and increase the proficiency of the publicity staff. Care should be taken from the beginning to uphold the quality of the news and the vitality of the composition. Constant consideration should be given to the fundamental rules and principles of writing news and feature stories. The following are some of the most important of these rules.

1. The information must be accurate.
2. The articles must be brief but must contain all the important facts.
3. In straight news stories the first paragraph must answer the questions "Who?" "What?" "When?" "Where?" and sometimes "Why?" or "How?" The first sentence must be so arranged that the most important or most appealing fact is given first.
4. Details should be arranged in the order of importance so that the sense will not be lost if it is found necessary to eliminate part of the story.
5. Sentences should be short and clear, and the ideas should be expressed in simple but forceful language. News is not literature.
6. Names should be used whenever possible as they add to the interest of the story for the community.
7. Humor adds liveliness and zest to feature stories and to stories of human interest, such as articles concerning attractive phases of school work, stories about persons who have made successes in the face of handicaps, and announcements of innovations.
8. Stories should be written with the public, not educators, in mind.
9. A striking headline should be written whenever possible. The

newspapers may alter the headline, but they will be glad to embody the idea if it is a good one.

10. There should be no introduction of the writer's opinions into a news story. Opinions should be reserved for special articles or editorials. News is information, not propaganda.

11. Many subjects which at first seem to possess no value as news may be converted into stories of wide appeal by careful handling.

12. Articles must be submitted on time. The value of most news depends on its recency.

13. All articles should be typewritten. Only one side of the sheet should be used.

14. Most good stories should stimulate sufficient interest to warrant a second story on the same subject.

15. The style sheet of the local newspaper giving its rules of punctuation, capitalization, etc., should be familiar to all who write school news.

There are but few schools too small to maintain a publicity service through the English department or the English classes and teachers. In the scattered instances where such provision is not practicable, administrators should assume the whole obligation. Whatever the size of the community, whether it be so large as to supply a publicity manager especially trained for the work or whether it be the merest hamlet with only four or five school teachers and a four-page weekly newspaper, school men can and must keep faith with the public. The development of the public schools is becoming increasingly dependent on the extent to which the heads of the school systems respond to their obligation and realize their opportunity to win the unqualified support of the citizens by letting them know and understand as much as possible about the schools and what they are doing.

STILL FURTHER COMMENTS ON THE SCORING OF THE CONTINUITY TEST

D. A. WORCESTER
University of Nebraska

In an article in the *School Review*, Wilson¹ has shown the inadequacy of the method proposed by Nesmith² for scoring the continuity test. Table I shows a score which might be secured by Nesmith's method and which is even more misleading than any men-

TABLE I
A POSSIBLE NUMBERING SCORED BY
NESMITH'S METHOD

Correct Order	Pupil's Order
1.....	6
2.....	7
3.....	8
4.....	9
5.....	1
6.....	2
7.....	3
8.....	4
9.....	5
Score.....	88

tioned by Wilson. It will be recalled that Nesmith gives a credit of $12\frac{1}{2}$ for each item in a nine-item test that comes anywhere below the item which should precede it. The pupil receives a score of 88, next to the highest possible score, although no single item of the test is within four places of its correct position.

Wilson's method of scoring the test is:

Transpose the pupil's markings in such a manner that they correspond with a key which places the items of the test in numerical order. Then cross out the figure 1 in the pupil's marking and count the number of items below it. Cross

¹ Howard E. Wilson, "Further Comments on the Scoring of the Continuity Test," *School Review*, XXXVIII (February, 1930), 115-23.

² Robert W. Nesmith, "Scoring the Continuity Test," *School Review*, XXXVII (December, 1929), 764-66.

out the pupil's figure 2 and count the number of items below it not previously crossed out. Cross out the pupil's figure 3 and count the number of items below it not crossed out. When all the items of the test have thus been crossed out, add the figures resulting from the various counts in order to secure the pupil's score.¹

In the opinion of the writer, Wilson's method of scoring the test is also open to serious objection both in theory and in practice. Wilson says, "The fundamental thesis . . . is that any method of scoring continuity tests which is adequate must count the number of relations marked by the pupil as correct which are involved among the items of a given test. This principle is not at present criticized, and we may assume its validity."² The validity of the principle may be questioned on two counts. First, it is the writer's belief that many, if not most, of the wide displacements of items in a continuity test which result in ridiculous errors are caused by complete ignorance of the items so that their position is given by chance. The principle advocated by Wilson will result in a multiple penalization of these chance errors; that is, if in a nine-item test the pupil knows nothing of the ninth item and therefore makes a guess that it should be first, his score is lowered by eight points. Second, in the actual process of arranging the items in a continuity test, it is sometimes true—in the writer's opinion, frequently true—that the pupil does not compare each item with every other item but rather that he establishes certain "landmarks," with which he makes comparisons. Therefore, a principle which implies that each item is judged in comparison with each other item is not true to the facts. For example, if the first items in a test are in the order 5, 3, 7, it is quite likely that the pupil notes first that Item 5 comes after Item 3, and he mentally puts 3 above 5. He next notes that Item 7 comes after Item 5. Proceeding in this way, he never directly compares Items 7 and 3. The only items which are compared with all the other items are those which are practically unknown. Those items concerning which the pupil's knowledge is secure will be compared with only a few others.

How does Wilson's method of scoring work out in practice? Before noting the scores in the examples given in Table II, the reader should decide whether the numbering assigned by Pupil 1 or that assigned by Pupil 2 represents the better knowledge of the subject.

¹ Howard E. Wilson, *op. cit.*, p. 122.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 116-17.

It will be noted that Pupil 1, who made one ridiculous error by placing the last item first but who placed all the other items in proper relation to one another, receives a score of 28, whereas Pupil 2, in whose arrangement no single item immediately precedes or follows the proper item, receives a score of 32, only four points below the perfect score, 36. It is the writer's opinion that Pupil 1 should receive the higher score. It would be easy to multiply examples of this kind.

TABLE II
POSSIBLE NUMBERINGS BY TWO PUPILS
SCORED BY WILSON'S METHOD

Correct Order	Pupil 1	Pupil 2
1.....	9	2
2.....	1	1
3.....	2	4
4.....	3	3
5.....	4	6
6.....	5	5
7.....	6	7
8.....	7	9
9.....	8	8
Score.....	28	32

Another method of scoring the continuity test has been suggested by Odell.¹ According to this method, the total number of points of credit on a particular exercise is assumed to be equal to the greatest possible sum of differences, which is the sum of the differences between the true order and the completely inverted order. The sum of the differences between the order given by the pupil and the correct order is subtracted from the greatest possible sum of differences, and the remainder is the pupil's score. Table III shows that this method also causes difficulties. It is noted that Pupil 1, who—let us say—made a wild guess on Item 9 and put it first, receives a score of only 24 even though he arranged all the other items in proper sequence. Thus, his one mistake is penalized nine times. Pupil 3 receives a score of 30, although only two items are in sequence with respect to each other and no item is in its proper position. This pupil, who

¹ C. W. Odell, *Traditional Examinations and New-Type Tests*, pp. 406-8. New York: Century Co., 1928.

made nine errors, secures a score two and one-half times as great as Pupil 2, who made only two mistakes.

After having experimented for some time with the continuity test, the writer has come to the conclusion that the only fair method of procedure is not to use this type of test but to devise another. His suggestion is that a series of multiple-choice exercises be ar-

TABLE III
POSSIBLE NUMBERINGS BY THREE PUPILS SCORED BY ODELL'S METHOD

CORRECT ORDER	PUPIL 1		PUPIL 2		PUPIL 3	
	Order Assigned to Items	Difference between Order Assigned and Correct Order	Order Assigned to Items	Difference between Order Assigned and Correct Order	Order Assigned to Items	Difference between Order Assigned and Correct Order
1.....	9	8	9	8	2	1
2.....	1	1	8	6	1	1
3.....	2	1	1	2	4	1
4.....	3	1	2	2	3	1
5.....	4	1	3	2	6	1
6.....	5	1	4	2	5	1
7.....	6	1	5	2	8	1
8.....	7	1	6	2	9	1
9.....	8	1	7	2	7	2
Sum of the differences*		16		28		10
Score.....		24		12		30

* The greatest possible sum of differences is 40.

ranged in such a way that the pupil at one time or another is required to compare each of the items with each of the others. In every case the pupil is asked to indicate the item which should come first. Such a test may be shown schematically as follows:

1	2	3	4
2	3	4	5
3	4	5	6
4	5	6	7
5	6	7	8
6	7	8	9
7	8	9	10
8	9	10	11

Items 10 and 11 are included merely as "fillers." Two things should be noted in the making of such a series: (1) It is obvious that the order of the items should be mixed; that is, Item 1 in a series should not always be given first. (2) The order of the rows should also be mixed. If this order is not mixed, the ingenious pupil will note that the answer to any row is the item which does not appear in the row below it. An order of items and exercises such as the following would probably make it impossible for the pupils to discover the scheme of answers.

1	2	3	4
5	6	4	7
11	8	10	9
6	7	8	5
3	2	4	5
6	7	8	9
4	5	3	6
8	7	9	10

When the names of events or processes are used, discovering the order of arrangement is much more difficult than it is in the illustration given.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Modern-language teaching in the United States.—*The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States*¹ reports the findings of investigations carried on by the Modern Foreign Language Study during the years 1924-27 with the financial aid of the Carnegie Corporation. It is in reality a report of the progress made in investigating the whole problem of teaching modern foreign languages in the United States—past, present, and future—considered under the following headings: "The Objectives of Modern Language Instruction," "Content of the Modern Language Course," "Organization of Classes," and "Some Considerations in Regard to Method."

As the Foreword indicates, some of the conclusions are based on the results of experimentation, some on statistical data, and some on opinions of teachers. The report is couched in the language of moderation; it is cautious in tone but not so impersonal as it would appear, especially where the attitude of a teacher who took part in the valuable experiment by Professor Buswell is misrepresented and the validity of the experiment is questioned on account of the assumed attitude of the teacher. Yet it must be admitted that the report represents a very important contribution to pedagogical literature even though it does little more than to state the problem. It is only fair to say, however, that little more could have been done in the time allotted.

It was proposed to seek answers to the seven following questions.

1. Who should and who should not study modern languages?
2. When should the subject be begun?
3. What is the minimum time below which the study of a modern language is unprofitable?
4. What should be, in language abilities and in other ways, the specific objectives of the course for the three chief groups involved under present conditions: (a) Those who study one year at most? (b) Those who study two years at most? (c) Those who study three years or more?
5. What should be the content of the course by years (grammar, vocabulary, reading matter, cultural content) for each of the three groups of students?
6. What classroom procedure must be followed in order that the objectives may be attained in the largest number of cases?

¹ Algernon Coleman, *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States*. Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, Volume Twelve. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. Pp. xx+300.

7. What standards of achievement may be reasonably expected at the various stages? [P. 4]

The extent to which these questions have been answered may be judged from the following summary of high points in the four sections of the book.

The section "The Objectives of Modern Language Instruction" considers very carefully the immediate and ultimate objectives of the study of a foreign language. These objectives are stated both generally and by years. The immediate objectives are stated as follows: (1) "the power to read the foreign language," (2) "the power to understand the foreign language when spoken," (3) "the power to speak the language," and (4) "the power to write the language" (p. 16). Tests to measure the extent to which these objectives are attained were devised and standardized. The important conclusions drawn from the results of these tests may be summarized as follows: At the present time only 50 per cent of the pupils in the two-year course attain the reading objective. There is a much higher attainment in the case of pupils in the three-year group. Unfortunately, the data show that for 83 per cent of the pupils who study modern languages two years is the maximum period of study. Obviously, either methods must be devised which will attain the reading objective in two years, or the standard course must be three years in length. Opinion and data indicate that the three-year course is desirable. The longer the course, the greater the benefit derived. It has been found impossible to determine the optimum time for beginning the study of a language. Though definite selection is urged, the perfect prognosis test has still to be devised. Lack of linguistic ability in individual pupils is definitely recognized as a factor in the language problem. The conclusion is reached that there is a direct relation between oral-aural ability and the ability to read and write. This conclusion clearly indicates the vital rôle of oral practice. It has been established that the percentage of persons who think that their language study was worth while is large enough to encourage the advocates of modern languages.

The second section, "Content of the Modern Language Course," includes vivid statements that may be summarized as follows: A great amount of time is spent in teaching formal grammar, which in no way contributes to the attainment of the reading objective. The attitude of the College Entrance Examination Board has done much to maintain this situation. The influence of the direct method has modified the situation somewhat, although much has yet to be accomplished. There must be a shift from grammar study to reading. *Realia*, or cultural elements, should be introduced into the course.

Word and idiom counts have been made which will enable teachers to introduce their pupils from the outset to the words and idioms that they will encounter most frequently in reading. In the opinion of the reviewer, the value of this procedure is open to question. Granted that these words and idioms will prove valuable later, is it not possible that, since the words are gleaned from all kinds of reading material, some of the words of the highest frequency

may be so far beyond the beginner that his interest may be alienated? Would he learn the words with ease and pleasure? Does this procedure take account of the learning process? It is unfortunate that counts similar to the word and idiom counts have not been made in the field of syntax.

In view of the relation between reading and oral practice and of the lack of any scientific experiment showing that vocalization contributes in no way to the development of the ability to read, the following recommendation is amazing. "Reduce considerably the amount of time devoted to oral work and concentrate on developing a functional knowledge of grammar and the ability to read" (p. 166). In a somewhat later paragraph an official observer reports, "There is no doubt . . . that the best classes I saw were those taught in the foreign language, for they commonly combined knowledge of grammar with good pronunciation, oral and aural facility and ability to read, a combination which classes in reading or grammar method rarely attain" (p. 246). The clash between these two statements is patent. Furthermore, with one exception—a special school—the best results observed were all attained in schools using the organized direct method, which includes oral practice with abundant reading.

In the opinion of the reviewer, the recommendation to reduce the amount of oral practice is most regrettable. French used to be taught as a dead language. Under the vitalizing influence of the direct method, it has been made a living thing. This recommendation along with other advice can easily be interpreted as favoring a silent-reading method. There is no scientific experiment showing the permanency of reading abilities acquired by this method. On the other hand, the common experience with Latin is that reading ability without oral practice is a most transitory thing. It may be said here that the whole urge of the report is toward a sit-and-recognize language attitude, as if the active use of the language would not furnish an appropriate and effective introduction to reading. No real teacher who possesses the language actively would be content to make a method out of silent reading.

One of the most interesting and conclusive experiments was conducted by Professor Buswell. His conclusion is: "When the objective . . . is ability to read, a perfectly clear-cut choice of methods is possible. The direct method produces desirable reading habits; the translation method does not" (p. 151).

The third section, "Organization of Classes," is the most convincing part of the whole report; it discloses a positively staggering situation. "Nothing short of chaos prevails in the classification of our modern-language students" (p. 231). There is no relation between length of time in a given course and attainment. We are confronted with an amazing amount of misplacement. Fifty per cent of the pupils tested were found to be misplaced by a semester. The only remedy for this unsatisfactory situation is the frequent use of standardized tests with subsequent adjustments. It would seem that this situation considered in connection with the poor equipment of teachers, the large ma-

jority of whom have never been abroad, explains the failure to attain the objectives in any satisfactory measure. There is a crying need for better control of pupil progress as well as for the development of a better technique of testing.

The fourth section is entitled "Some Considerations in Regard to Method." The grammar-translation method is distinctly not favored by teachers. The drift toward the direct method is noted, but the eclectic method was the favorite at all stages for ability to read and write. "The fundamental consideration in determining the choice of a teaching technique . . . is that the activities in which teacher and students engage must be such as to give the students the maximum amount of practice during the period of study in doing the kinds of things that are included in the objectives approved for a given teaching situation. . . . There is little concrete and wholly trustworthy evidence to show to what extent a given classroom method is, in itself, productive of superior or of inferior results" (p. 276). In the light of this statement the wisdom of urging a reduction in the amount of oral and aural practice and the cultivation of a sit-and-recognize attitude is seriously open to question. Oral work and silent reading are neither incompatible nor mutually exclusive; on the contrary, they are complementary and have been widely used together with conspicuous success.

Administrators are exhorted to exercise greater care in selecting modern-language teachers with suitable training. Ineffective foreign-language teaching is worse than no language instruction. Principals should recognize that the use of the foreign language in the classroom "makes demands upon the energies" of the language teacher, especially since he must overcome the language inertia of American youth. The language teacher who fails to travel abroad is rarely qualified to teach. Principals should encourage and aid teachers to secure the advantages of study and travel abroad. As few principals have any wide acquaintance with modern languages, the teachers in this field have sensed a lack of understanding and appreciation of their problems. Many important problems pertaining to the teaching and learning of modern languages have yet to be investigated. The establishment of a research institute is suggested. It is to be regretted that the report makes no mention of phonetics, which has been a subject of heated discussion among foreign-language teachers for many years. The appendixes include a list of some of the problems requiring investigation as well as a list of the special research projects sponsored by the Modern Foreign Language Study.

ARTHUR GIBBON BOVÉE

Education for character development.—Excessive sentimentality has never been fruitful in the solution of what many consider our most pressing problem in modern education—the formation of good character in the growing generation. Dogmatisms and platitudes still abound in much of the literature now available, but a truly scientific attitude toward the perplexing problem is emerging. It is not enough to say that the home and the school should co-operate in the attempt

to build good character; it is necessary to show how such co-operation is possible and to show definitely how it may be, or has been, productive.

Two Missouri educators offer a book¹ which should be read by every teacher and every parent in the nation because it meets the requirements indicated. The book grew out of an extensive experiment, in which 915 teachers and 5,463 parents in many communities of all sorts participated. A considerable part of the book is devoted to the presentation of concrete material contributed by classroom teachers during a series of extension courses. Contact of the teachers with the perplexing situations described makes this material of vital significance, regardless of whether the attempts at solution were wholly successful.

As stated in the Preface, "these teachers and parents have in their intelligent, co-operative endeavors for the past three years made a contribution to the study of character-training in at least two ways: (1) certain crucial character-training problems, universal in nature, have been ascertained; (2) a successful technique or method by which to approach and solve these vital child problems has been experimentally determined in both rural and urban communities" (p. v).

Part One offers a program for the school; Part Two, a program for the home. Part Two is also published as a separate book for parents and should prove useful for organizations of laymen interested in child-training. Each part is divided into three sections of from three to six chapters each.

The first section of Part One raises and attempts to answer the question: "How does teaching effect growth in character?" In the third chapter the reader reaches the heart of the problem as the authors see it. A descriptive account is given of the results obtained through the use of the "elastic contract assignment" together with a number of examples. In writing a report on the project or unit of activities, the teacher makes a list of what she believes to be the character traits strengthened during the progress of the experiment. There is nothing new or startling about the examples given; they are much like others to be found in the current literature on creative school work or the project method. Yet they add weight to previous testimony and are worth the space they occupy because they are, in a sense, not ordinary opinions but expert opinions. A conscious effort to contribute to character through school activities is far better than an effort which assumes "incidental outcomes" without any attempt to decide exactly what they are. If we can see desirable traits of character developing before our eyes and give other people the benefit of what we see, we have contributed much. The authors conclude that all training may be of such a nature as to encourage independent thought and action and the development of such traits as self-reliance, thrift, industry, and responsibility.

The second section is based on case studies of more than 2,500 pupils. It is safe to assume that the laborious analysis involved, extending over a period of

¹ Charles E. Germane and Edith Gayton Germane, *Character Education: A Program for the School and the Home*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1929. Pp. xviii+260+224+x.

three years and participated in by nearly a thousand teachers, will be productive in other sections of the country where problems of character-training are no less acute. A few of the reasons for juvenile delinquency ranked highest by the teachers are worthy of notice: (1) lack of moral concepts, (2) unwholesome environment, (3) bad associates, (4) lack of training in reasoning, (5) lack of self-control, (6) impulsive and emotional nature, and (7) the spoiled child. These reasons indicate both social and educational shortcomings that demand attention. Suggested means for correction, many of them tried and found successful, are not lacking. Chapter v outlines a social-guidance plan that might be tried out in any community. The most frequently reported delinquencies are (1) theft, (2) lack of interest, (3) disobedience, (4) selfishness, (5) poor sportsmanship, and (6) lying. It seems to the reviewer that a little research to determine the leading delinquencies in any school unit would be fruitful if its implications were followed up through the concerted efforts of teachers and parents.

The third section adds to the mass of material now accumulating with regard to pupil participation in self-government, the home room, and similar types of organization. The teachers kept records of the reprimands administered to their pupils, accounting for them partly by reference to weather conditions, state of mind of teachers and pupils, state of general health of teachers and pupils, and other factors. They undertook the experiment with the idea of reducing the number of reprimands by determining what caused them and removing the causes so far as possible. In many cases they were partly or wholly successful. The investigation must have required a high degree of self-analysis and perfect frankness in self-judgment. The pupils carried on simultaneously a similar exercise in self-analysis—how conscientiously can only be judged roughly by the reader. The overwhelming result of the experiment was to justify the home-room program. One might venture the statement, however, that the experiment was worth while if it only made the relations between teacher and pupils more wholesome and reduced the necessity of resorting to reprimands.

This experiment is only one of the several described in the third section of the book. Long lists of topics for discussion in the home room, advantages of the home-room organization listed by pupils and teachers, and a discussion of causes of failure in home-room organization fill many pages. Some of the lists belong in an appendix, and many individual items might have been omitted. The lists are handy for reference but detract from the continuity of the discussion.

What are the most common faults of children? One hundred and thirty-two are listed in the second chapter of Part Two. Stubbornness is the most common fault if 5,463 parents know their children. Children argue, are slow in dressing, are thoughtless about duties, are slow to obey, tease, are impatient, and hate to go to bed. So the record goes through twenty-five faults, many of which, the authors frankly admit, may not be faults at all. They may even represent virtues in the making. Yet the analysis is interesting because every parent is faced with the necessity of deciding just how far to go or how much to ignore in dealing with these characteristics in his children. Even if we apply the term "un-

desirable habits," we have no simple problem, and we cannot doubt that many parents encourage these habits unconsciously by their own attitude toward their children. Certain habits will be outgrown; others require attention, which is not often given. The necessity of securing the co-operation of school and home is urgent.

Meetings of parents were held frequently in many communities during the preparation of Part Two of the book. Problems were frankly discussed, and hundreds of questions were raised by the parents, some of which could be answered but many of which are beyond human ken at the present stage of civilization. The psychological principles having to do with habit formation are explained in the book and were used in the discussions. A few of the topics dealt with are as follows: suggestion and imitation and their effect on habit formation, the plasticity of the nervous organism of the child, the effect of denial on certain inborn tendencies, failure and its effect, unfavorable social environment, physical conditions, and problems of adolescent conduct. The psychology is clearly that of Thorndike, expressed in a form that should be easily understood by parents untrained in the subject.

Sane conclusions are reached with regard to the problem of coercion in the correction of the faults of children. A few of the conclusions which seem to have almost the force of principles may be stated as follows: (1) If the child feels that punishment is unjust or the result of parental displeasure, undesirable results are likely to follow. (2) Coercion is effective when the child feels that his punishment is the direct result of his deed. (3) The attitude of the child at the time he is punished will determine whether the outcomes will be desirable or harmful.

The last section of the book is devoted to the relations between the child and the home. From the home the child should get a true conception of the nature of democracy. He should learn to accept certain responsibilities as a co-partner in the home, not as a convenient errand boy, to whom tasks are assigned to be done in an adult-determined manner. Children were asked to indicate the things which they wished their fathers would not do, with interesting results that bring to the fore the failings of the complacent parent. Although too much must not be claimed for reading as a character-building force, it has with good music its proper sphere. The concluding statements are rather prophetic.

What this generation of parents and teachers needs is to feel that it is a vital part of the great relay race of an ongoing civilization. Shall this generation so run that race as to give the next an overwhelming handicap or a significant lead? The answer depends upon the insight and foresight which we exercise in human relationship [Part Two, p. 224].

The book is a genuine contribution to our understanding of the problems of character-training. It has some faults in organization, and many of its conclusions must await the test of time and further experiment, but in theory and practice it is fundamentally sound.

H. E. DEWEY

An anthology of travel literature.—"Travel is fatal to prejudice," Mark Twain once said. If one cannot enjoy the broadening influence and benefits of actual travel, at least one can share vicariously in the travel experiences of others. To pupils at the secondary-school level, wide reading in travel literature is valuable as preparation for later actual travel or as a means of satisfying a nomadic urge which cannot be realized except in a vicarious way. Anthologies of travel literature should prove helpful in directing pupils' interest to a fascinating type of non-fiction with which they are quite unfamiliar because of inhibiting misconceptions. A recently published collection of travel sketches is interesting, if not ideal.

Travel Sketches of Today,¹ designed for pupils of high-school age, contains a variety of extracts from twenty-two modern books of travel. The subjects range from shark-fishing in the South Seas and pleasant imprisonment in the great castle of Aoulouz in North Africa to a weird ceremonial snake dance by a tribe of Arizona Indians and the first world-flight by way of Iceland and Greenland. There is variety of treatment as well as of subject. A lazy charm pervades C. E. Andrews' "Prisoners at Aoulouz"; excitement and vivid color lend interest to "A Gondola Race" by F. Hopkinson Smith; glowing word pictures in Arthur Symons' "At the Land's End" arouse a longing to be in England in summer; and the uncanny atmosphere in Roosevelt's "The Hopi Snake-Dance" is dramatically effective.

On the whole, the editors have selected their material with discrimination to the end of "enlarging the pupil's knowledge and his tolerance" (p. iv). One wonders, however, why they did not reject Halliburton's "The Challenge of Fujiyama," with its unrestrained exuberance and romantic egotism, or Dr. Paul Harrison's "Pearl Divers of the East Coast," with its somewhat dull expository style and necessarily limited appeal, in favor of some of Konrad Bercovici's fascinating accounts of gipsy life in Roumania, Lafcadio Hearn's delightful pictures of the Orient, or Sidney Dark's charming treatment of Paris and London. In choosing one sketch, "From Iceland to Greenland" by Lowell Thomas, the editors definitely sacrificed standards to appeal. The thrilling theme of this selection will undoubtedly catch the interest of the air-minded pupils of today, but its inferior prose style, with its trite phrasing and melodramatic treatment of dramatic incidents, makes it a poor choice.

Each essay is preceded by brief comments on the theme or setting of the selection. Occasionally biographical data are presented. The comments are helpful, but the biographical material is too meager. Before reading travel-type literature, the pupil is interested in knowing something about the life of the man whose travel experiences he is to share vicariously. A few salient and pertinent facts would be sufficient in each case.

Appended to the group of travel selections is a section of questions, "interesting topics," and "inviting books" to be considered after the sketches have

¹ *Travel Sketches of Today*. Edited by Charles Lane Hanson and William J. Gross. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1929. Pp. x+326. \$0.92.

been read. This section is intended to stimulate pupils to write and talk about their own impressions and observations. Many of the exercises are not well motivated, and not a few of the topics suggested for written or oral work are too remote or general to arouse spontaneity in pupil response. The "inviting books" and the bibliography include a rather confusing miscellany of fiction, non-fiction, drama, and poetry. For example, one finds Hawthorne, Jules Verne, Mary Hastings Bradley, Henrik Ibsen, and Longfellow in the list of authors, and *The Courtship of Miles Standish*, *Death Comes for the Archbishop*, *Five Weeks in a Balloon*, *Peer Gynt*, *Handbook of Commercial Geography*, and *Camp Craft* in the list of titles. The book includes a handy chart of important events and dates in the history of discovery and travel, which range from the Egyptian expedition to Punt in 1600 B.C. to the recent flight of the Graf Zeppelin.

ROBERT SHILEY

A French grammar to develop reading ability.—At this time when specialists, supported by the findings of the Modern Foreign Language Study, are urging that everything in modern-language work be subordinated to the one supreme objective of teaching pupils to read, it is interesting to have appear in the Chicago French Series a recognition-type grammar,¹ the sole aim of which is to develop in pupils during one year the practical ability to read French.

The grammar, prepared by Helen M. Eddy, assistant professor of Romance languages at the State University of Iowa and head of the Department of Foreign Languages in the University High School of that university, consists of ten introductory lessons in pronunciation, twenty-six lessons in grammar, a summary of grammar, lesson vocabularies, vocabulary and idiom study lists, and a general vocabulary with phonetic transcriptions. To carry out the method, the author has prepared also a pupil's workbook, which provides practice and drill exercises. In addition, in collaboration with Grace Cochran, she has prepared a reader, *Si nous lisions*, which contains graded material designed to be used as early as the third week of the course. The series is intended for high-school pupils.

The introductory lessons on pronunciation in the grammar teach the French sounds and their spellings, using the international phonetic alphabet. This work is carried on later in the main part of the book by means of the phonetic transcriptions of the vocabulary and exercises that correlate with the early lessons and furnish a systematic review.

The grammar topics introduced into the body of the book have been selected on the basis of their reading value only. Having made this the criterion for choice, the author proceeds to teach the topics inductively. The grammatical forms and usages are introduced in a text of connected reading. The reading matter is followed by a series of questions which guide the pupil in deriving the grammatical law from the text. These questions are handled with skill, and

¹ Helen M. Eddy, *Beginning French: Training for Reading: Manual*, pp. xviii+276, \$1.50; *Workbook*, pp. x+156, \$1.00. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.

they will lead the pupil who works conscientiously to have a clear comprehension of the structure of French. The pupil is referred to the Workbook, where he tests his comprehension by means of multiple-choice and true-false exercises. These exercises are thought-provoking material. The pupil has only to fill in a word or number, circle a letter, underline a word, or by some other simple and direct process prove his understanding without recourse to translation. Later, diagnostic and achievement tests designed to regulate the rate of class procedure and to determine deficiencies to be removed will be published. The book includes progress charts, which make the pupil aware of his accomplishment or lack of it. These charts should prove a valuable incentive to study.

The irregular verbs used are chosen on the basis of their position in the *French Word Book* compiled by George E. Vander Beke. The 677 words in the text are selected for the most part from the *French Word Book*; the 105 idioms, from the *French Idiom List* compiled by Frederic D. Cheydleur.

The book bears evidence of having been prepared with infinite pains by an experienced teacher who is quite aware of the dangers and pitfalls in the path of the learner. It is not a library-made textbook. It has been evolved from the laboratory of the classroom and is based on practical ideas of pedagogy and a thorough understanding of problems encountered by the pupil. The author has sensed the present need in modern-language teaching and has met that need without any waste of time.

The book is attractive in makeup; it has clear type, pages that are easy to read, and pleasing silhouette pictures. The proofreading has, on the whole, been careful and accurate. There are a few errors; on page xv *évant* is given for *avant*; in the Workbook, the numbers referring to the vocabulary lists are each time one behind the actual page number.

The prospectus says that at the end of the first year the reading ability of the pupils in the experimental class in the University High School of the State University of Iowa, where the book was tried out, was between that of second-year pupils and that of third-year pupils when tested by the American Council silent-reading test and the Columbia Research Bureau comprehension test; and the best pupils reached the norm of fourth-year pupils. When the average time that pupils in general throughout the United States can devote to the study of French is two years, a book that can attain such results is worthy of consideration.

JOSETTE EUGÉNIE SPINK

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GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY,
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